The Nation.

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The Week.

SENATOR ALLISON is one of the coolest heads on the Republican side of the Senate, and he is evidently convinced that all will not be clear sailing for his party in the next Senate. When Gorman appealed on Monday week for Republican aid in meeting the difficulties of the Treasury and the dangers of the currency, Mr. Allison did not join in the sneer of the smaller minds on his side of the chamber. He said it would never do to wait till next December on the ground that the Republican party, having had an overwhelming victory, was the one to deal with all these questions. It was for the best minds in both parties to come to the rescue of the Government finances at once. This conviction of the Iowa Senator that sound-money sentiment is stronger in the present Senate than it will be in the next, is fully justified by the Senatorial elections in the West and the South. Fiat money will be from six to ten votes stronger in the next Senate than it is in this. The Populists do not expect to have a majority for their ideas, but they do expect to be strong enough to block any measure hostile to their ideas. With no change in the Senate rules they undoubtedly will be strong enough. Good Republican policy, therefore, demands speedy and vigorous effort to relieve the Treasury. Delay is dangerous for the country, but is doubly dangerous for the Republican party. Senator Allison's appeal to his colleagues to treat these great questions in a non-partisan spirit makes him appear to great advantage beside the nagging and do-nothing Aldrich.

The *World* publishes an interview with Senator Sherman on the subject of his bill to authorize the issue of short-time bonds for temporary relief of the Treasury. It authorizes the secretary, in order to meet deficiencies, to sell at discretion for coin, at not less than par, the kinds of bonds authorized in the redemption act of 1875, or coupon or registered bonds of small denomination bearing not more than 3 per cent. interest, redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the Government after five years. In lieu of any of these bonds, the secretary is authorized at his discretion to issue certificates of indebtedness of the United States, payable in coin after five years, in denominations from $20 to $100, to bear interest at 3 per cent. Mr. Sherman says in the interview:

"Some of the New York financial men, who seem to have some funny ideas about finance, take exception to my bill because the word gold is not substituted for coin in the provision for the redemption of the bonds. No such provision has ever been made in Government bonds! There is no reason why it should be stipulated that a loan negotiated under the terms of this bill should be paid in gold. This Government's policy is to maintain the parity of the two metals, and there is no occasion for any such change in the wording of our bonds."

We think that all New York financial men will be grateful to Mr. Sherman for introducing this bill and for his efforts to pass it. At the same time it should be pointed out that the main object of putting the word "gold" into the bill is to make the bonds sell better. That word would certainly improve the price and widen the market. It would create a demand for the bonds in Europe and *ipso facto* stop the exportation of gold. At the time when the bond acts of 1870 and 1875 were passed, there was no other coin known to Congress or the people but gold coin. The silver dollar did not exist. It had passed out of men's minds as completely as the mastodon. The reason why no particular metal was mentioned was because only one was ever contemplated. But be that as it may, the question now is, What phraseology will best accomplish the end in view, to wit, the sale of the bonds at a high price, the restoration of the public credit and of general confidence? Mr. Sherman knows that the word gold will do this, and if he had a little more courage he would say so.

Some of the first fruits of the great Republican victory of last fall, which are now being gathered in senatorial elections in various States, are not toothsome. Platt bestriding the party in New York is scarcely a more astonishing and offensive figure this side the North River than is Sewell beyond it, coolly assuming that his election to the United States Senate is the logical and fitting outcome of the reform movement which swept the State last November. One of his supporters in the caucus pointed with pride to Sewell's "able leadership during the dark days of the Republican party in New Jersey." But it was exactly that able leadership which made the days so dark. Nothing did more to keep New Jersey surely Democratic than Sewell's career as Senator, lobbyist, divider of the spoils under Harrison, and bargain-striker with Democratic bosses. As Senator again, he will be in a position to restore the dark days speedily, and will doubtless do so. He will find able assistance in the Senate, in the great work of clouding the party's prospects, in the person of Elkins, who has solemnly accepted the "great trust" of representing West Virginia. When Harrison made him secretary of war, unutterable things disturbed the mental repose of Republican editors whose minds went back to the star-route days, and the few of them whom Harrison neglected to subsidize frankly said that the appointment was not fit to be made. But now he is a Senator, with a benevolent scheme for old-age pensions for all. Platt, Sewell, Elkins — not to mention Thurston, Wolcott, and Chandler—gayly riding the whirlwind of reform and directing the storm of indignation at Democratic rascals, beautifully illustrate the deep yearning of the American people for pure political leadership.

Platt has succeeded in his efforts to capture the chairmanship of the new Republican county committee, and is now complete master of his party. He controls the State committee, the county committees of New York and Brooklyn, the Republican majority in the Legislature, and apparently the Governor. Such power as this has not been equalled in this State by any boss save Hill. In order to get control of the county committee in this city, he has caused the defeat of the most reputable chairman that the committee ever had, and has put in his place a man who has no other idea of the position than to use it as Platt wishes him to; who was so eager to make this use of it that as soon as he was elected he publicly rebuked the members of the party who had refused to recognize Platt as boss. We are glad to be able to chronicle the fact that several of these resented this insulting treatment by withdrawing promptly from the hall. They ought not to allow their indignation to rest at that point, but ought from this time forward to devote all their energies to showing to the people of this city that there is sufficient manhood and decency left in the Republican party to overthrow Platt and release the party from his control. Unless they can do so there will be a speedy reaction, with the result of putting Hill again in the saddle.

Now that the appropriation for collecting the income tax has at last been voted, the President should lose no time in placing under civil-service rules the collectors who are to have charge of that work. Such action has been urged, we understand, by the Civil-Service Commission, but the answer has been made that, until the appropriation was voted, nothing would be done. The duty is obvious of using every precaution to secure honest and competent deputies to attend to this business. It is an offensive thing at best to have one's private affairs inquired into by a Government official; and in the hands of ordinary political workers, such as would be sure to get the job unless compelled to pass an examination, it would infallibly become a means of blackmail or terrorism, or both combined. We have no doubt that the President will add to his many other recent orders placing new classes of public officers under the rules, one making sure that the character and competence of the income-tax collectors

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shall be surrounded with all the guarantees possible.

The case involving the constitutionality of the income tax, now before the court in the District of Columbia, may be thrown out for lack of jurisdiction, or on some other ground, but it is clear that the whole question is to be brought, in some way, before the Supreme Court as speedily as may be. When the case was argued before, the main fight was made on the point that the income tax was a direct tax, and so not constitutionally leviable. This issue the court avoided by ignoring all standard economic definitions of what constitutes a direct tax, and deciding, in what, from the standpoint of an economist, must seem a grotesque way, that the income tax was of the nature of an excise. Doubtless new argument will be had on this point, but apparently the chief stress is to be laid on the constitutional requirement of uniformity in taxation. Mr. David A. Wells has led the way, in his *Forum* article, in calling attention to the possibility that the income tax may be held to be fatally obnoxious to this constitutional provision, and the position which he there briefly indicated will be elaborated and given all possible legal fortification by the lawyers who are to argue the case in Washington. Some of the provisions of the law seem clearly to violate the requirement of uniformity; but whether the whole law will go down on that issue no man can foretell. "We all know what judges will do," said Selden, referring to the judges who upheld Charles's right to his ship-money; and 200 years have not lessened the reasons for wondering at judicial vagaries.

The committee on ways and means has voted to report a bill abolishing the discriminating duty of 1-10 cent per pound on sugar from bounty-paying countries. This duty is considered by Germany a violation of treaty as well as an unfriendly act, and has been made the subject of retaliation of a very annoying kind. It should be remarked, also, that the German bounty on exported beet sugar comes to an end in 1896, in pursuance of a law passed in 1891, so that the matter in dispute is the merest bagatelle in any case. The only importance attaching to it is its irritating character. It is capable of putting both countries into a bad temper and causing severe losses to the citizens of both in consequence. The benefit of the duty is absolutely nil. It is not even beneficial to the Sugar Trust. The Republicans may attempt to make some capital out of the repeal bill, but it is not likely that they will carry their resistance so far as to defeat it. They will say, as Mr. Aldrich does, that the trouble is not caused by the discriminating duty, but by the abrogation of the reciprocity arrangement made by Harrison. But if Germany takes the other view of the matter, the cattle-growers of this country, who are suffering from the retaliation, will not be satisfied with Mr. Aldrich's easy explanation of the trouble. There is no doubt that the repeal bill will pass the House. It is hoped that it may be followed by others for restoring the balance between the Government's income and outgo.

The Hawaiian trouble seems to have no end. There has been a "rebellion" in the islands, which was sure to come sooner or later, and there will probably soon be another. No set of men who acquire power by force and fraud are ever secure against other men's force and fraud. But there is one feature in the situation which to us, at least, gives much relief. Great Britain is still at work with her intrigues. When Admiral Walker wrote home that the wicked Wodehouse was gone, and that the commissioner who succeeded him was abstaining from interference, we greatly feared that the change in policy would lead to trouble between the two powers. American diplomacy achieves little in any part of the world without a British intrigue or two. In fact, it is almost impossible to rouse a right state of mind among our people about any foreign matter without showing that the British are trying to get something away from us. In a certain sense, therefore, British agents are in our service. Their rôle is to excite our public men, and back them up by means of intrigues and grabs. We do not say that we have a right to their service, but we have enjoyed it so long that its withdrawal would indicate a certain unfriendliness of which our people would surely take note.

A despatch of the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent relative to the Hawaiian business supplies, for the first time, an adequate explanation of all the shrieking and holding up of hands in horror. Up to the present that phenomenon has remained a mystery to its closest students. Hatred of Cleveland and Gresham will account for much, but not for all these hysterical cries of bloody murther so long sustained. Jingoism and the professional enthusiasm of naval officers may go part way in explaining the puzzle, but even they leave us very far from understanding the terrific eagerness to get hold of the Hawaiian Islands. But the moment the trained observer of American politics hears a whisper about Hawaiian bonds, about a syndicate to float them, particularly among the constituents of Lodge, Frye, and Boutelle, about a scheme to make a security now worth twenty-five cents on a dollar jump in one day to par—that moment all becomes clear, and he experiences a joy like that of the man on the peak of Darien when a new planet swims into his ken. He listens, for example, to the horrible racket kept up day after day in the *Tribune* —hears about "the furtive conspiracy, studious deceit, brutal insolence, and defiant usurpation" of Mr. Cleveland, closing with the despairing question, "With what miracles of infamy will he consign the chapter to a hideous immortality?"—and is no longer baffled thereby. Over nothing but bonds can such a divine rage be stirred up in this country. Bonds, a syndicate to float them, large holdings among the truly pious investors of New England who want to make only 300 per cent.—the whole thing is a mystery no more, and takes its place alongside Landreau claims, nitrate beds, "good things" in Brazil, and the other historic evokers of American patriotic frenzy.

The bill for reorganizing the navy which is soon to be brought before the House of Representatives for consideration, is such an extraordinary measure that it is difficult to regard it seriously. It is entitled "a bill to reorganize the efficiency of the personnel of the navy and marine corps of the United States," but that is a very misleading title. What it does is to increase the number of captains from 45 to 60, and the number of commanders from 85 to 100; to make 23 commanders who came in from the volunteer navy during the civil war additional in their grade, with promotion the same as now; to create a reserve list (a new departure in this country) of 100 officers, in addition to the present naval establishment; to make all the present commodores admirals, and to permit the seventy-eight line officers who have had thirty-five years' service, to retire as rear-admirals on $4,500 a year each. The increased expenditure for the additional commanding officers would be $100,000 a year, and the reserve list would require an increase of $250,000, making an annual increase of $350,000 in two items alone.

The absurdity of the bill is most strongly disclosed when we come to inquire what use is to be made of the 53 additional commanding officers. There are now 45 captains and 85 commanders, or 130 commanding officers in all. At present only 38 can find employment, and of these only 25 are in command of sea-going ships. A greater number than forty vessels available for sea cannot be expected in the near future, counting ships now building and those proposed to be added. At present no captain can get command of a ship more than one-third of his time, and three years of sea service in ten years is very rare. If now 53 more officers of command rank are made (as the bill provides), and we have 183 for forty ships, they will then remain on shore 75 per cent. of their time, or *eleven years after each cruise*. It is the professed design of the bill to abolish "stagnation" from the navy and promote efficiency

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among the officers. But how can efficiency and habits of command be promoted among officers who spend three-quarters of their time on shore? The "stagnation" would be greater under the new system than it is now, and there would be a demand for its banishment by building more ships, giving us a "great navy."

The experience of Brooklyn during the past week shows the dreadful mistake which officials make when they temporize and compromise. After the strike had gone on for a full week, after the strikers had found that the local authorities, if not openly sympathizing with them, were at least most derelict in enforcing the law, after the inefficient management of the police force under an incompetent commissioner had forced the calling out of 7,000 troops—after all this, Mayor Schieren announced on Monday that now "all nonsense must be stopped." If the chief magistrate had taken this stand a week before, there would have been no occasion for expending $15,000 a day ever since in maintaining the great military force now on duty. The time to "stop nonsense" is when it begins—not after it has been given a week's headway. The demagogues are now condemning the companies because they have not secured a full force of new men to operate their cars. But how could this be expected when the new men who were sent out on cars last week found that the very policemen who accompanied them were unwilling to protect them from violence, and were in many cases openly displaying their sympathy with the law-breakers?

The Ohio wool-growers have resolved that the free-wool provisions of the new tariff are "a colossal political crime." This seems to us a mistake. In the first place, it will stir up the wrath of the silverites. They hold the copyright in the phrase "a colossal political crime." By a long-vested right, *that* applies only to the demonetization of silver in 1873, and any other crime that attempts to usurp the proud title will do so at its peril. Besides, it is hardly polite to tell the men—and particularly the women—who are buying better clothing for less money than ever before in their lives, that they are accessories to a crime. Nor will the woollen manufacturers, whose mills are doing better than for years, be pleased to be told by the men whose wool they buy that they are benefiting by a crime. It would be just like them to knock off a cent or two on the price of wool when thus taunted. Furthermore, the market reports for Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago are all telling just now of a firmer market and higher prices for wool. We think that the Ohio growers, on mature consideration, will leave to Stewart and Teller sole and undisturbed enjoyment of the only original "colossal political crime."

The Boston *Journal of Commerce* notices the removal of New England cotton mills to the South with approval and without any feeling of alarm. The movement, it says, is simply the transfer of coarse goods to a more economical situation, to be replaced by fine goods in the northern centres of the trade. As fast as the old machinery in Lowell, Lawrence, Nashua, and Manchester wears out, or becomes antiquated, it will be cast aside and not renewed—that is, not for the same kind of goods. The room will be taken by new machinery for new goods, and the same companies will erect mills at the South for making the coarser fabrics. This is what is going on now. "This change," says the *Journal*, "will not displace a single operative, but will call for a more skilled class of help and eventually a larger number, as a weaver cannot tend the same number of looms on fine goods that she can do on coarse."

Kansas has learned by bitter experience the worthlessness of the Populist nostrums for the cure of hard times. While that party was in control of the State, it passed a law to regulate the sale and redemption of real estate under execution, which it was promised would afford great relief to those who had mortgaged their homes and were unable to meet their obligations. Under this law the borrower, without paying interest or taxes, can retain control of the property pledged for security two or three years, instead of being subject to foreclosure in the usual way. But instead of relieving the borrower, this interference with normal business relations has made his condition harder than it was before. Capital was alarmed by the passage of the law, and was withdrawn as rapidly as possible from the State. It is estimated that $15,000,000 has been thus withdrawn during the last two years by Eastern men who had loans secured by real estate in Kansas, while nearly all the large insurance companies and savings banks which have been accustomed to make loans there positively refuse to take any new mortgages until the laws are changed. Gov. Morrill, who is a practical business man, in his first message to the Legislature urges the prompt repeal of this foolish statute as the first essential to the return of prosperity.

Senator Dolph of Oregon makes a good many tiresome speeches, but his renomination by the Republicans of the Legislature is cause for rejoicing. He has stood out against free coinage, and the silver lunatics resolved to set him aside for this reason. The complete failure of the attempt shows that the craze is fading out in Oregon. The Portland *Oregonian*, which has fought the delusion persistently and forcibly, takes a hopeful view of the silver question. It points out that there is no longer any silver craze east of the Mississippi River, and it attributes its continued vitality further west to the "desperate speculators who have blown everything into silver mines and become political desperadoes." These have played on the cupidity of other politicians and on the ignorance of the masses who feel the stress of the hard times, but the silver fanaticism which they thus foster, in the *Oregonian's* opinion, "will not be of long duration."

The worst feature of the situation is the fact that, while the people may soon recover from the craze, its influence cannot be so speedily extirpated in Congress. A free-coinage Senator is elected to serve for six years, and he is generally a man who will remain "true to silver," however his constituents may change. Wyoming, for example, recently elected such a Senator to serve until 1901, in place of Mr. Carey, who voted against free coinage. Utah will send two Senators of the same type when she enters the Union as a State next winter. Arizona and New Mexico can be depended upon to furnish four more votes in the Senate on the same side in the Fifty-fourth Congress, if the acts providing for their admission are passed during the present session. The compact body of silver Senators from thinly settled and remote States is out of all proportion to the strength of the craze in the country at large, while it is impervious to the force of public opinion in the populous parts of the nation. This is the most serious element in the situation as regards the future of this question.

French finances are in a situation only less critical than our own, and it is to be feared that the great stir over the dramatic political events of last week will prevent the Chamber and the country from giving the subject the serious consideration which it demands. M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu published on January 12 a long exposition of the difficulties confronting the Treasury. These may be summarized as an enormous permanent debt, actually doubled during the past twenty years of peace; a floating debt of proportions which are a little vague, but very bothersome; diminishing revenues and Treasury balances; huge and increasing appropriations and wastefulness. On this last point M. Leroy-Beaulieu makes the following truthful assertion, applicable not alone to France:

> "There has been much talk of late of different bankruptcies; one may add to them the total bankruptcy of the old claims of democracy that it would reduce the numbers of public officials. In point of useless offices and sinecures, democracy has surpassed all preceding forms of government. Not a single sub-préfecture has it abolished, or got rid of one hanger-on of municipal councils, while it has created legions of directors and inspectors of all sorts."

England is as badly afflicted as France with the disease of "fonctionnarisme."

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NEW YORK'S NEW RULER.

THERE is one branch of the subject now engaging every one's attention, which has hardly been touched on, but which merits the earnest attention of the Committee of Seventy and of the Good Government clubs, and indeed of all good people in this city. We mean the fact that we are now contending, not simply with the venality and cunning of Platt, but with what is really a new form of government established by Croker, whose successor Platt is. If we treat the present situation as simply one of Platt's making, and flatter ourselves that, if we beat Platt, our way is clear, we shall make a great mistake, which the new generation will rue; for unless we carry our reform further than the rescue of the city from Platt's hands, Platt will have a successor, as Croker has had.

Croker has established in New York a government unknown to the Constitution and the laws, but just as effective as if it had been discussed in convention and voted on by the people. It consists in the levy of money on the corporations of this city, with which the legislators are purchased before their election by one man resident in New York, who then retails legislation in quantities to suit purchasers either for cash or for salaried offices. So firmly is this form of government established to-day that no legislation can be obtained in any other way, no matter who demands it, or what plain public necessity calls for it. Platt's government is, in fact, as strong as if he held the State with a victorious armed force. He feels towards the Mayor, the Chamber of Commerce, the Committee of Seventy, and all other public bodies, as Louis Napoleon might have felt towards those of Paris after 1851. He rules the State more fully and completely than the Governor or any public officer. The Governor, in fact, sits as his deputy.

If any one had foretold, twenty or even fifteen years ago, that any such régime could be set up in this State, that the public powers could pass into the hands of a private individual without any popular mandate or recognition, he would have been laughed to scorn. If any European observer had predicted it, he would have furnished materials for ridicule in a thousand newspaper articles. Nevertheless it is to-day the most prominent, notorious, and grievous fact of our political condition. The system, too, was founded by an ignorant man of foreign birth, once a street "tough," and practised by him for several years—with complete submission on the part of the people at the polls. Moreover, he struck its roots so deeply that, when his party was defeated at the polls, he was succeeded in his place, quietly, naturally, simply, by an American, home-loving, God-fearing Presbyterian, with a pastor and a pew.

Now we happen to feel this yoke most severely in the city because it is here the money is raised for the public degradation, and because it is here that we need most legislation. The country as a rule does not feel it in anything like the same degree, and in fact it is the country legislators, for the most part, who serve under Platt in the new bossocracy, as we should call it, but more properly autocracy. It is a régime which cannot be overturned by voting against Platt, for he holds no legal office, nor can we probably produce much *permanent* effect on the legislators now in office, for they are in his pay. We therefore most earnestly urge on our friends who are working for reform in this city to appeal more fully and directly than they have yet done to the people of the interior of the State. We do not believe these people are fully aware of the nature of the system Platt has set up, or of the subserviency of their legislators to him, or of the effects of his rule in this city. We would therefore suggest an address to the voters of the western part of the State, on the part of the Committee of Seventy, describing the situation here, as created by six years of Tammany rule, setting forth the pledges and promises made to Democrats and Independents in order to secure the election of a Republican mayor, and the difficulties thrown in the way of reform by Platt's government.

None of the New York city papers has much circulation one hundred miles away from the place of publication. As we have seen, Platt supplies the papers of the interior, by direct distribution, with his own version of the trouble, and no counter version ever reaches them. Very few indeed of the country voters have more than a vague idea of the difficulties with which we are contending here, or of the problems of city government which have come up within a few years. But few have ever seen any report of the evidence taken before the Lexow committee, and they will therefore readily believe the Platt theory of the report, that the whole trouble was due to the superintendent's lack of power to make transfers and assignments. In fact, not many know more about New York than that it is a great wicked city, controlled by "the money power." What is needed is a vigorous and abundant distribution of readable documents, for which every kind of lists should be used—clerical, medical, collegiate, reform and tariff clubs. The city is and must remain controlled by the Legislature, and if the old government by discussion is to be restored, it must be through the people who elect the legislators.

This method of working on opinion has never yet failed in America. It may be slow, but it is sure. If we ceased to believe in it, we should have to give up popular government as a hopeless failure. It must be remembered how short a time it is since Hill seemed as strongly entrenched as Platt, and what serious doubts many of us felt as to what the popular verdict on Maynard would be. Now the people who ousted Hill and damned Maynard are not going to put up with Platt if the facts are well laid before them. They are as a general rule Americans, who think the State of New York the best "organization" any man can belong to, and who will not tolerate the boss system one minute after they fully understand it. This system cannot be overthrown, however, without a vigorous propaganda, which we earnestly commend to the attention of all who have "enlisted for the war."

THE LEXOW REPORT.

CONCERNING the narrative portion of the Lexow committee's report we have nothing of moment to say. It describes fairly enough the revelations which have been made about the condition of the police force. But we do not remember ever to have seen, in any public document, a passage equalling in audacity the following explanation of the cause of the police demoralization:

> "The conclusion seems irresistible that the bi-partisan system is the only one which can commend itself to the people. The main evil to be corrected is that of the prevalent demonstrated corruption, which apparently, from the testimony of the superintendent, has swept into the force *mainly because of the inability of the executive chief to assign and transfer members of the force.* He testified that if this power to assign were conferred upon the superintendent, and conditions such as revealed by the testimony continued, the superintendent must either be corrupt or incompetent; hence, absolute responsibility could be fixed for such a condition of affairs."

So that our rising in November was due solely to a desire to give the superintendent the power to "assign and transfer" members of the force, under a bi-partisan commission, and this is really the only change for the better the committee offer us. It must not be forgotten that the evidence taken by the committee was not taken in secret. Every word of it was laid before the public, so that there are probably 10,000 persons in this city fully as competent as any member of the committee to draw conclusions from it. Every one of these may fairly consider his intelligence insulted by the proffered remedy.

The arguments in favor of a bi-partisan commission are, in like manner, apparently addressed to an audience which has never had any experience of a bi-partisan commission, and indeed has never seen one. No one would suppose, from these arguments, that the city had had twenty-five years' experience of such commissions, and was perfectly familiar with their defects, and that their possible corruption and rascality had been fully exposed before the committee itself; that a bi-partisan of one party had in their immediate view and presence been proved guilty of selling promotions, and left the chair in shame and "mental prostration," and that another bi-partisan of another party had in the same place admitted himself to be

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a "grand-larceny thief." They do not, in fact, contain an allusion to the long history of the bi-partisan system as we have tried it, or attempt to meet one of the objections to it. To the suggestion that the management of elections should be transferred to a separate bureau, the committee simply opposes the assertion that "it would not relieve the situation in respect" to the multiplicity of police functions at present, which is like saying that it does a busy man no good to have his work reduced. The argument against a single head for the police consists simply of the assertion that he would have too much to do.

Let us now examine the committee's remedies. In the first place, they provide for the reorganization of the force by three commissioners appointed by the Governor—not by the Mayor. The Governor is now, to all outward appearance, under the influence and control of "Tom" Platt. These three men would, therefore, probably be Platt men, and they are to have power to examine into the qualifications and efficiency of every member of the uniformed force, and dismiss or retain whom they please. It is true that they are to submit their decisions, with the reasons for them, to the Mayor, and he is to have the power of approving or disapproving them, and his judgment is to be final; but the Mayor cannot, of course, pass intelligently on the qualifications of 4,000 men on the report of persons whom he has not selected, and in whom he may have no confidence. The Mayor, and no one else, should have the appointment of these commissioners. This is what the election of last November meant.

The government of this reorganized force is to remain exactly what it is to-day—that of four "bi-partisans," two of them, we presume, Charley Murray and Mike Kerwin, whose appointment Platt got from Mayor Gilroy, he said in an interview, "by diplomacy"; and bi-partisans they are, with all that the word implies. The only change is, that bi-partisanship is made mandatory on the appointing officer, and the superintendent receives power of assignment and transfer, and of suspension for ten days. Promotions are to be made by the board—no longer by civil-service examination—by *unanimous* vote, unless the superintendent should recommend in writing. Otherwise any one member of the Board could block a man's promotion, and the bi-partisan who would not, under these circumstances, make the officer pay up, would differ greatly from most other members of his species.

Now we should like to ask the Committee of Seventy, Dr. Parkhurst, Mayor Strong, and every other honest man and woman who worked and prayed last fall for the deliverance of the city from the clutches of a corrupt bi-partisan oligarchy, whether they are prepared to sit down under this most impudent attempt on their simplicity and credulity. They are virtually asked in this most ridiculous report, by the aid of arguments which would discredit a schoolboy, to exchange the rule of a Tammany boss for the rule of another boss whose methods are exactly the same, whose character is very little better, and who is just as eager to maintain partisanship in city government as Croker was. Platt is determined to-day that we shall not have what we voted for in November, and that he, who could not poll 5,000 votes for any office in this city, will "down" Mr. Strong, who polled 154,000.

If there be any of the courage, the persistence, the determination to deliver the city which were displayed at the last election, left among us, the time has come for a second display of them. We are betraying no confidence when we say that the delay in the passage of the removal bill is due simply and solely to a desire to extract pledges or conditions from Mr. Strong as to the appointments, and that Mr. Strong's determination to accept no resignations and make no appointments until this bill is passed, is part and parcel of resolute resistance to Platt's dictation. The "three-bill trick"—that is, the introduction of several bills with the same object—is merely a device of the thimble-riggers who serve under Platt to produce delay and give the committee on cities an excuse for many "hearings" and much mock deliberation. But Mr. Strong must not be left to fight this battle alone. Those who elected him must back him up. They must speak out. Platt must be made to understand that, in the language of his brother-sharpers, the people of the city "have got on to his racket." The Committee of Seventy, the Good Government clubs, the City Club, and every organization and order of men and women in the city should make plain that their tenacity and their vigilance are at least equal to those of the public enemy.

SUNDAY CLOSING.

Mayor Strong, in his interview with the liquor-dealers the other day, threw out an intimation of the change which is rapidly coming over the minds of thoughtful men of all classes, concerning the wisdom of the attempts we have been making for so many years to enforce in New York the New England view both of the Sabbath and of liquor. Among them are a great many of those who for years past have been foremost in the efforts made to diminish drinking in this city, and to surround what drinking there has to be with conditions of decency and order. Upon these the argument of experience ought to tell with great force, for in politics and legislation there is no guide like experience. It is worth all the books, sermons, and lectures in the world. The sociologist and the politician both have to stand dumb before it. Happy is the people which has a good stock of it in store, for, as Burke remarks, what is not practicable is never wise. We are not now talking of the regulation of the liquor traffic by high license or otherwise. We are talking of the closing of the saloons to the workingman, on the only idle day he has in the week, in defiance of the wishes of the majority of the city population. The attempt to do this has been persisted in for a quarter of a century. We know all about its history and results, and can therefore speak about it with a confidence which would hardly be justifiable on any other public question.

In the first place, as long as the workingman votes, his opinions in this matter, whatever we may think of them, must be respected. He will find some means of making them tell. Although he may not be able to make head against a law made at Albany, he can exert a powerful influence on the manner of its execution. In this city our Sunday restrictions have simply thrown him into the arms of Tammany, as a power which will permit the law to remain a dead letter. To nothing more than this does Tammany owe its solid vote of 108,000. It cannot do anything for one-tenth part of these people, except contribute in some small ways to their comfort, and this it has done. It has winked at such violations of the law as the working-people had a mind to.

The explanation of this will be very easy if we put ourselves, or try to do so, in the workingman's place when he wakes up on Sunday morning. He lives in one or two squalid rooms in a tenement-house, and he has a vacuous day before him. He does not go to church, and he is not a reader, even if he had books. He is essentially a talker. All he knows of the outer world comes to him through talk, and the one place in which he can talk or discuss with his fellow-men, and under conditions of comfort, is the saloon. He might go to a coffee-room here and there, but there are not enough coffee-rooms in New York for a fiftieth part of the saloon frequenters. The saloon, too, is the one place where he comes in contact with the civilization of the community, with its ideas, or views, or facts. Moreover, whatever be the right or wrong of it, the great bulk of our population will not sit and talk without some kind of intoxicating drink before them. In this they resemble almost the whole population of Christendom, except native Americans who do their drinking standing. What makes the matter worse is that those who denounce and try to change the workingman's tastes in this matter generally live in comfortable houses and belong to clubs, where every hour of Sunday, as of other days, they can order whatever drink they please without hindrance or criticism from anybody. The notion that the working classes do not take note of this when they are breaking the law, is an hallucination. It is constantly in their minds.

In the second place, no machinery for enforcing such a law as our Sunday closing law has ever been devised. No such attempt as we are making has ever suc-

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ceeded anywhere any better than here. No police would be equal to such a task even if it were honest. But no police can remain honest which is charged with the duty of preventing any kind of dealer from satisfying a keen, and generally considered legitimate, popular desire. Under such temptations the virtue even of clergymen would in the long run break down. On this point any citizen of New York is one of the highest authorities in the world. We have seen a police force, exceptionally well paid, and probably at the outset as honest as any, become in twenty years, under the operation of constant temptation, an army of brigands and blackmailers. We have seen every liquor-dealer of about 10,000 furnished with a keen inducement to break the law and to escape the penalty by bribing the police. The result has been that the law has not been executed, and its non-execution has been secured by wholesale corruption. Nor is there any use in supposing that we could execute the law with better material. No material is within our reach which would answer any such purpose. Twelve-hundred dollar policemen have not done it, and five-thousand-dollar policemen could not do it. To secure complete prevention we should have to pay salaries large enough to take away the desire for small additions to them. What should such salaries be? The police commissioners get $5,000, apparently without taking the edge off their appetites.

To keep on trying to save Sunday from what good people consider "desecration," by such means as these, and with consequences with which we are now familiar, would be something far worse than a mistake. It would be doing a great wrong for a little right. It would be debauching the whole government of the community in order to prevent a few people from making a harmful use of their liberty. Nothing that we are now saying applies to any regulation of the liquor traffic by license or otherwise. It applies only to the Sunday prohibition. It applies only to the attempt to enforce a law to which the great bulk of the community is opposed. A high license would make every liquor-dealer who held it an agent of the law in preventing illicit traffic and in keeping down the number of saloons. A Sunday law converts every liquor-dealer into an enemy of the law and a debaucher of the police. We advise those who are interested in the peace, order, and morality of the city not to be influenced by the denunciations of those who seek its repeal. Standing on the revelations of the Lexow committee, and on the experience of the last twenty years, they may defy the *à-priori* hosts.

THE FRENCH CRISIS.

THE Latin poets say that crossing the sea does not change people's characters. So also it may be said that no change in the form of government can effect much change in French political manners. The Presidents of the Republic seem to have hardly any better chance of filling out their terms than the Kings and Emperors. Louis XVIII. is the only ruler in one hundred years who has died peaceably in possession of power. MacMahon, Grévy, Carnot, and Perier have followed Charles the Tenth, Louis Philippe, and Louis Napoleon. The resignation of M. Perier may be considered the final breakdown of the experiment which the French have been trying since 1871, of combining an elective presidency with a ministry responsible to the Chamber. It becomes more and more doubtful whether any of our modern democratic parliaments can be much longer intrusted with the power of changing the executive by a hostile vote. What has just occurred in France is what is becoming more and more frequent in all chambers in which the ministry need to command a majority vote in order to stay in power. The "group" system of organization is making such majorities more and more unstable, and it is characteristic of the French to push this group system to its extreme, though the Italians are following fast in their wake, as are the small states of eastern Europe. There are signs of the same tendency even in that "mother of parliaments," the English.

The economical condition of France, too, greatly favors the friends of disorder. She has for a hundred years led the van in the embodiment in practice of the ideas uppermost in the European mind. The spread of universal suffrage has filled the masses with the expectation of some great improvement in their material condition, for his material condition is everywhere the foremost object of the poor man's thoughts. The general depression in business, combined with the continued existence of poverty, has set him to asking more and more imperiously when the improvement is going to begin. All the European governments, at least all the parliamentary governments, pretend that the question is quite reasonable, and that the improvement ought to begin at once. Not one of them, however, seems to know how it is to be effected, and they try to gain time by appointing "labor commissions" and making recommendations of attractive but visionary schemes.

Unhappily, in France this question is addressed to a body on whom the modern eagerness to grow rich has taken powerful hold, who get into the Chamber largely with the view of improving their condition, and who insist on the ministers purchasing their support; and they find themselves in power at a period when the capital is full of speculators and promoters, who stand ready to buy everything that is for sale. Hence the enormous scandals of the past few years, which have furnished the Socialists with plenty of ammunition for the "dénigrement" of the "classes dirigeantes," and, in fact, of the owners of property generally. There is unquestionably, in the detestation of the Socialistic workingmen for the "sale bourgeois," a strong element of contempt for his supposed venality and corruption.

Though last not least, among the difficulties with which M. Perier has had to contend is the Parisian press, which recent revelations show to be venal beyond example, besides being violent and mendacious. There are really only two daily papers in Paris worthy of the attention of a serious man. But then the press in every country fairly represents the public which reads it. All pecuniarily successful newspapers supply a demand, and it may be fairly said that the Parisian public makes the Parisian newspapers. What is peculiar in the journalistic situation there, however, is that the papers which in other countries would only amuse people by their lies and extravagance, in Paris make an impression on the public mind, and they make it even if they live only two or three weeks. Few Parisians have what we call political sense, or even "horse sense," and their credulity in the matter of scandal is worthy of the middle ages. Hence it is possible for a parcel of adventurers at any time by a few weeks of "journalism" to cover a ministry or a public man with odium of some sort, which the French temperament makes it impossible for any one to sit down under or to despise. The sum and substance of it all is, that public life in France is becoming increasingly difficult for real statesmen, and the confidence of the masses in politicians is steadily decreasing. Taine points out that when this general relaxation of the social and political bond occurred after the Revolution, people turned in despair to the army, where the virtues on which states are founded had taken refuge—the feeling of brotherhood, of obedience, of mutual confidence and loyalty, of love of country; and it would not be surprising if we should now witness the same phenomenon.

The Socialists, who were shrieking with delight on Wednesday week, when they had frightened a hypochondriac President into resigning, were howling with rage by Friday over the election of M. Faure, another Conservative chief magistrate. A most curious feature of it all, to an observer at a distance, is the comparative quiet and indifference of the country at large while Paris is torn with fury and faction. The explanation of this fact appears to lie in the massing of the Socialistic sentiment and vote almost wholly in Paris and a few large cities. Reckoning the entire Socialist vote of the country at something more than 500,000, fully one-half of this is cast in Paris alone, while probably nine-tenths of the remainder comes from Marseilles, Toulouse, Roubaix, and other cities. As it happens, some scattering elections, held no longer ago than January 6, give a very good idea of the distribution and location of the dangerous constituencies. In a Paris arrondissement on that day, a Socialist, M. Gérault-Richard, was elected to the Chamber by a vote of 2,742 to about

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1,200 for all others. His predecessor, also a Socialist, had been elected by 3,041 to less than 2,000 for all others. But on the same day, in one of the districts of the Côte-d'Or, a Moderate Republican was returned by a great majority, while in an election to the Conseil Général du Rhône the Socialist vote was only 574 out of 3,908 cast. These figures help us to understand how little typical and representative of the nation the political sentiment of Paris is, and how the Parisian mob is powerless to elect a President, even if it can harass and intimidate one when elected.

Indeed, the Socialists themselves confess the almost entire failure of their propaganda among the peasants. Even M. Jaurès acknowledges this, and has insisted upon the need of getting up a more showy bait to make the wary rural voter rise. The explanation is, that the French peasantry of to-day is a property-owning peasantry. According to the estimates of Miss Betham-Edwards, who is a high authority, twice as many French peasants owned land in 1889 as in 1789. The land of France is owned, so it is computed, by 8,000,000 persons, of whom above one-half are peasants. This is one of the great results of the French Revolution which must be duly weighed in reckoning up the good and evil of that mighty convulsion. It at least broke down the feudal land-laws of France, and made land-owners out of millions of men who were serfs. In their hands has been demonstrated afresh what Arthur Young called the magic power of property to turn sand to gold. Regions which he visited in 1788 and found barren and deserted, a hundred years later were clothed with vines and gardens under the tillage of peasant proprietors. Is it any wonder that these men propose to think more than twice before consenting to give up their hard-won property?

VENETIAN ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, December 29.

THIS year Venetian art is the subject which the directors of the New Gallery have taken upon themselves to illustrate in their winter exhibition. That in the private and lesser-known galleries of England many good, and a few important, canvases by the old Italian masters are to be found, is a fact that need not now be insisted upon, since it has already been well established by the collections hung winter after winter in the Royal Academy. Of course, it is only in Venice that Venetian art is to be seen in its full glory, but there was every reason to suppose that such a loan exhibition, got up in London, would prove interesting if only in a supplementary way.

And interesting it is unquestionably, though also disappointing. Without the journey to Venice, without, indeed, crossing the Channel, finer examples of Venetian art can be found. At the National Gallery, in the British and South Kensington Museums, the subject is to be studied to much greater advantage, with far fewer drawbacks. Besides, some of the noteworthy contributions come from other collections open to the public—from Hampton Court, for instance, and Oxford's University Galleries. Still, the opportunity to pass in review the art of Venice in almost all its periods and branches (there are laces, bronzes, books, armor, glass, porcelain, and so on, as well as pictures and drawings) in one exhibition is exceptional, and therefore of no small interest. The disappointment is to discover how far short all the sections, save perhaps the one devoted to lace, fall of being fully representative of their art at its best.

To consider the pictures first is inevitable, since to them by far the most space is given. They fill the three large galleries and the balcony. Like all old work, mellowed and softened by time, they lend a certain serenity and repose to the walls they decorate, and, as all belong to practically the same school, there is little to disturb a harmony that has much of splendor in it, beauty and richness of color being the chief characteristic of the school in question. But when it comes to looking at each canvas separately, the effect is not so striking, for there is no doubt that, judged from the artistic standpoint, many of the paintings are of no value whatever—mere rubbish, to be frank—while the masterpieces are few and far between. Indeed, the catalogue in itself is enough to make one distrustful. It contains no less than thirty Titians; and fourteen examples of Giorgione, despite the experts who have denied his right to all canvases bearing his name save the one solitary Madonna. However, if the quality of the work were beyond reproach, the vagaries of tradition and catalogue-makers would matter little. But, as it is, there is painting after painting that can be taken seriously only by those authorities and students who measure art with a foot-rule, reducing it to a problem of noses and finger-tips, who set up photographs as the standard, and who unearth forgotten painters to make them play the scapegoat for their fellow-artists. The chances are that before the exhibition closes, the most glaring absurdities of the catalogue will be amended, and pictures will be labelled anew to the satisfaction of the labeller and the dismay of the owners. But, so far as the work is concerned, it will be in the end exactly as it was in the beginning, with no greater claim to distinction, with no greater power to enchant. Those who value pictures according to their artistic qualities will still look at the many with indifference, will still feel the same keen pleasure in the few.

Here, in fact, as in all collections and exhibitions, there are the few good or even great exceptions. The Primitive commands respect when he is seen in such a careful record of architecture and facts, rendered with unmistakable regard to color-schemes, as Jacopo Bellini's "Dominican Preaching in a Public Square"—a rose red square of Venice; or such a fine decorative arrangement as Crivelli's "St. George and the Dragon," though one wonders if it was as beautiful when the now old gold of the backgrounds and the saint's armor and the horse's trappings was as new and staring as the frame that holds it. A Mantegna or a Carpaccio here and there reminds mildly that the true artist was never bound to commonplace by the accepted conventions of his time. The name affixed counts for nothing when a portrait is as stamped with individuality as two by Gentile Bellini of youths shown in severe profile against a plain ground, from the Oxford Galleries; or the good strong head of Hans Memling by Antonello da Messina; or another of a handsome Venetian by Giovanni Bellini. These are works in which the individuality of the painter and the men they painted is triumphantly asserted. And the same individuality, together with greater facility of execution and more matured methods, distinguishes the portrait of a melancholy, sad-eyed, long-bearded man by Moroni, not unworthy to hang side by side with the "Tailor" in the National Gallery; the beautiful "Andrea Odoni," from Hampton Court, by Lorenzo Lotto; Tintoretto's old and wrinkled "Venetian Senator"; and the "Portrait of a Man" by Giorgione—a small head, lent by Mr. A. H. Savage Landor, which, genuine or not, is very lovely in the subtle modelling of the face and the richness of the subdued color. The famous "Shepherd with a Flute" from Hampton Court is also here, and among the twelve other pictures attributed to Giorgione there are two or three—notably a delightful little sketch, nothing more than a fine note of color, "The Rape of Europa," lent by Burne-Jones—which stand out with much distinction in their present surroundings.

The thirty Titians are mostly tributes to the unintelligence of the collector; the well-known "Triumph of Love," and a less familiar "Mother and Child"—which ought to set the Morelli faction in a flutter, so unlike is it to other Titians—offering the necessary contrast. Perhaps I should add that "The Worship of Venus," the replica of the beautiful Prado picture, sold not long since at Christie's, is here, and also the "Portrait of Antonio Grimani," that scarce justifies the raptures of Crowe and Cavalcaselle. Tintoretto fares more fortunately, for there is an "Adam and Eve" to show how tender and scholarly he could be in the treatment of the nude, and likewise an allegorical "Portrait of Ottavio da Strada," to charm by the exquisiteness of color and grandeur of composition which were his in his happiest moments. Only a hint is given of Veronese's decorative elegance in the "Christ at the House of Levi," a replica on a smaller scale of the picture in Venice; only a suggestion of the stateliness of Tiepolo, who is most inadequately represented. If two or three Guardis and Canalettos, and a single canvas by Il Greco—as pupil of Tintoretto included among the Venetians—were mentioned, the list would be fairly well exhausted.

The average of the drawings, no doubt because of their comparatively small number, is higher. Of course, many are the merest sketches and notes jotted down roughly, if with delightful vigor. But then, again, others seem to contain the most complete and perfect expression of the artist's skill. Thus, there are drawings of single figures by Carpaccio, done in bistre heightened with white on gray paper, which have all the dignity and grace of the figures in his pictures, suggest far more action, and are marred by none of the archaic mannerisms which the painter of his day could not escape when he came to work out an elaborate composition in color on canvas. The red-chalk studies attributed to Giorgione, in like manner, gain in vigor because of the entire freedom with which they are made. It is curious to contrast the rapid pen-and-ink drawings by Titian, no more than hurried memoranda, with a most delicate, careful drawing of "The Adoration of the Magi," wonderfully dainty in its detail, by Antonello da Messina, or a tiny little head of a man by Giovanni Bellini, in which he has anticipated something of the modern mastery of this medium. Pen-drawings by Campagnola are amusing in their way, while the wash-drawings of Canaletto are as clean and crisp as if destined for the modern reproductive engraver. Another sug-

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gestive drawing is one of "Ladies and a Dwarf under a richly decorated pergola," by Veronese, from the royal collection—suggestive less because of the way it is done than of the power displayed to express on a small piece of paper the stately architecture which we have come to associate only with his colossal canvases.

Of the rest of the exhibition it would be useless to speak in detail. The lace is very beautiful, and includes some fine old Greek Venetian, the figures in the design being quite Byzantine in character. For embroideries and stuffs, however, a visit to South Kensington would prove more profitable. The book-bindings are exceedingly well selected; the tooled morocco bindings done for Grolier and those in crimson velvet and gold for the Popes, and in repoussé silver for the Doges, receiving due prominence. But it irritates to find that of all the arts relating to the making of books, the art of bookbinding alone is recognized. What, one cannot help asking, of the work of Aldus, of Ratdolt? The glass and porcelain do not compete with the British Museum collections. There is a strange absence of good brasses, and while armor and lanterns and mirrors may be decorative, they leave many a gap that a well-equipped museum could easily fill. Altogether, if the exhibition be useful, it is within certain very circumscribed limits.

N. N.

RECENT ITALIAN NOVELS.

ALASSIO, December, 1894.

OUT of four volumes before me, three treat almost exclusively of the one subject, the one that serves for nine-tenths of the novels of the Latin races. One must accept the convention, just as we expect others to put up with the bread-and-butter loves, the scruples and principles, of the misses of our novels. It is said that people who are brought up under a more carnal régime get to loathe the insipidity of the misses; it follows as naturally that the most cosmopolitan among Anglo-Saxons sickens of a too protracted contemplation of the unholy trinity. So if, after a dozen or more of stories of Matilde Serao, and five hundred pages of Gabriele d'Annunzio, full of illicit animalism, my remarks should at times be sharpened by an injudicial impatience, the reader is begged to make due allowance for a frailty that is yet imperfectly corrected by education.

Matilde Serao's two dainty little volumes are written to make a pair. The titles, 'Gli Amanti' and 'Le Amanti,' are somewhat difficult of translation. *Lovers* and *Sweethearts* might do if both conveyed an "improper" meaning. There are no English words to express the relations indicated but such as are either insufficient or too gross. Of course, as good Anglo-Saxons, we thank Heaven that our language does not allow us to mention vice without stigmatizing it. Still, virtue is, in a way, a limitation. The tender intimacies that form the subject of these stories are not openly sanctioned by society; of that fact, however, the authoress seems unconscious. With scarcely an exception, the lovers are the most refined and the most elegant of a class in which refinement and elegance are the rule. Gentle breeding and surroundings of luxury unite in the sentimentality of the writer to invest them with a sympathy that is almost poetry—indeed, it *is* poetry, so far as treatment can make it so. And if the end of these illicit relations be almost invariably disappointment and heartache, that is not because there is a Nemesis that pursues wrong-doing, is, in fact, inherent in it. Nothing could be further from the ideas of the authoress than a moral judgment. A mild pessimism, born of satiety, seems at first sight the whole of her philosophy; only, the observation of human nature is at times so clear-sighted, and the satiety or the heart-ache comes so inevitably to all these lovers, that one may suspect that, after all, she understands the deeper meaning of the world she depicts. At any rate, the lesson is there, whether she intends to preach it or not. Even in the two stories where the fair sinners, narrating gayly their own experience, tell how they were so wearied at not being able to find anything to complain of in the lovers they had chosen that they could console themselves only by taking others, the bare facts are eloquent, and to those who have eyes to see and ears to hear, facts are the best of sermons. The world at large, however, is more likely to take Matilde Serao's sweets as bon-bons rather than as medicine, and many find that they upset the stomach rather than put it right.

Taken as bon-bons, there are among the number some very good ones. To my taste the best are under the title 'Le Amanti.' The others are mere sketches; these are real stories, beautifully told, and one at least of them—"L'Amante Sciocca," the stupid mistress—a little masterpiece. The story is not a new one. A man of genius, a poet, who has had more than enough of love-affairs with women turbulent, pretentious, exacting, or otherwise troublesome, wishes to be loved by one who is simple, even though she be a trifle stupid. The case is not uncommon; indeed, the history of literary men is full of such, and, mistress or wife, the same pitiful comedy is enacted over and over again. He finds a woman who is as much his superior by the heart as he is hers by the head, and the union is from the beginning doomed to be unhappy. Its story is told by Matilde Serao with a grace and pathos altogether admirable, and quite worthy of the author's position among the very best of living Italian novelists.

It would be difficult, not to say impossible, not to admire the work of Gabriele d'Annunzio unreservedly when he writes poetry, with certain reserves when he writes prose, or at least when he writes novels. The prose in itself is beautiful; it can be reproached only with a polish perhaps excessive, and with having adopted, along with the naturalistic creed, some of the tricks of style of Zola and the brothers De Goncourt. It is with the matter rather than with the manner that we find fault, and our quarrel is, after all, rather with the school to which he has attached himself than with this or any other single work emanating from it.

The protagonist of 'Trionfo della Morte' has a certain aristocratic refinement and fastidiousness both of taste and of character; make the most of it—it is his only virtue. He is worthless as son, brother, and nephew; as a lover he is purely and simply an animal. For the rest he is a *décadent* with a touch of madness about him. His mistress is but a pale character, little besides a body, and that a diseased one. Such as it is, it has no mysteries for us. Clothed and unclothed, we are allowed to know everything about it that she, or her lover, or her doctor could know, and we follow it through all its actions and sufferings for several seasons, including much that could have no legitimate interest for any one but herself or, at most, her companion. The chief interest of the book centres in the latter. The study of the mental states of a man of intelligence and sensibility, weak, morbid, and corrupt though he be, may not be agreeable, may not even be wholesome reading, but, executed with the mingled delicacy and force brought by the author to the task, it holds the attention from beginning to end. Not that there is no temptation to skip. The main thread of the story, painful and often exasperating, is set off by episodes some of which could be endurable only to one who has an abnormal appetite for horrors. For instance, the description of the pilgrimage to the Shrine of Our Lady of Casalbordino is wonderful in its vigor and clearness. The crowd of the ignorant, the superstitious, the afflicted in mind and body, together with the beggars, the charlatans, the swindlers who prey upon them, the spectacle of loathsome diseases and infirmities, of squalor, filth, and all imaginable forms of baseness that are brought together on such occasions—all this is given with an accumulation of details that would be simply stupefying were it not for the intensity of the author's vision. You seem to see, to hear, to smell, to suffer and be disgusted with him, until finally, in spite of the fascination of his art, I fancy that few will not gladly take refuge in the reader's privilege of skipping.

There are other disagreeable episodes in the book—indeed, given its intention, it could scarcely be otherwise; but then again there are passages of rare beauty and interest. The landscapes about Albano and Monte Gargano are traced with a master hand; better yet, the master is a poet, and in his words the charm, the mystery, the suggestiveness of the scene are all embodied. Then, too, the life of the peasants of the Capitanata, with their legends, their superstitions, their picturesque outside, and the pathos of their ignorance, their sorrows and their patience, furnish material for chapters that are worth more than a cursory reading. The artistic instinct of the author has made him invest his tragedy with every splendor of execution and imagery at his command; his novel is a work of art, where each part, even the least, is finished as carefully as if it were a statue or a sonnet. In fact, it is poet's prose. Other writers, *e. g.*, Zola, may bestow as much care on their style, but that is not all. The sentences of Gabriele d'Annunzio have the music, the indefinable charm, the sentiment of poetry. On occasion they are decorated with the ornaments usually reserved for verse alone. An effect very like that of a refrain is obtained by repetitions of a sentence. For instance, a certain brook that flows transparent over the pebbles and under a fringe of poplar-trees appears again and again, always described in the same words; and these, in fact, are so well chosen that any change in them would be for the worse. Also, the reveries of the protagonist about an uncle whom he had loved in youth are invariably accompanied by a portrait in which no touch is ever changed; and a description of Orvieto is repeated word for word. But, with exquisite art, the image of the uncle Demetrio is given in a solemn, almost mystical cadence, in which the very tone takes on the sentiment of reverie and memory, while the little picture of Orvieto is like a cameo of Gautier for delicate finish.

One may wish, then, that the author had chosen to tell us about persons for whom it would be easier to feel something like sympathy, that his main subject had been something other than the ups and downs of a passion almost entirely animal, that he had not espoused an artistic creed which accepts things as worthy of careful delineation in direct ratio to their disagreeableness. And yet one must

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own that he has given us a work of art of a high order, and that he has succeeded in investing a story of mortal corruption "with light, with music, and with perfume." The effect recalls certain martyrdoms of Rubens, where the most delightful carnations, the genial force of the master, are lavished upon a scene of the most revolting horror. Such a book can appeal only to the limited public that is solicitous of perfection in art, or the other, equally limited, that is interested in morbid psychology. Between the two, perhaps aided somewhat by fashion, the novels of Gabriele d'Annunzio reach always a certain number of editions, and are beginning to excite attention also in France. It is not easy to believe that the sentence from Nietzsche that is printed at the head of this volume can have more than a partial application:

"Es giebt Bücher welche für Seele und Gesundheit einen umgekehrten Werth haben, je nachdem die niedere Seele, die niedrigere Lebenskraft, oder aber die höhere und gewaltigere sich ihrer bedienen: im ersten Falle sind es gefährliche, erbröckelnde, auflösende Bücher, im anderen Heroldsrufe, welche die Tapfersten zu ihrer Tapferkeit herausfordern."

Leaving aside the question of the truth of this sentence, it may be that the present work may be dangerous, disintegrating, and dissolvent for some minds, but it can scarcely be for any more than an artistic pleasure, and in no wise a trumpet-call to moral courage.

It is refreshing once in a while to get hold of a novel that does not turn upon a breach of the seventh commandment, and we are grateful to Sig. Rovetta for putting this sin into the background of his action. 'La Baraonda' (which may be translated Babel or Babylon) is the world of bogus enterprises, of sham patriotism, of easy manners and adventures. The hero, Matteo Cantasirena, carries his impudence, his mendacity, his dexterity in manipulating men and circumstances in his own interest to a heroic height. He is by turns patriot, newspaper editor, originator of grand schemes, failing periodically and always getting again upon his feet. His character is admirably drawn and sustained; one may trust its lifelikeness to be recognized outside of Italy. The minor characters are also done to the life—the two soi-disant nieces who are the accomplices of Matteo, the others who are his victims, the German banker Kloss, as great a rascal as goes unhung, who, however, keeps within the bounds of legality and encompasses the downfall of Matteo. The crash comes in the break-up of a sort of lesser Panama—a scheme for uniting all the greater streams of northern Italy by a system of canals, in which the only work really done is the emission of shares and the attempted manufacture of a confiding public for them. As might be surmised, nobody in such a world is of much value; the dupes are weak and the others are rogues.

The author's tale of it is cleverly told, is good of its sort. The fault may be mine if I do not find its merits even greater, but I confess that, after reading even greedily a straightforward story of sharpers and their surroundings, I am apt at the end to be a prey to serious doubts as to the value of the entertainment. It is probably because the tone of the narrator so often echoes that of the world of which he tells. Thackeray describes Vanity Fair, and Balzac, even without visible moral purpose, delineates every turpitude of modern life, and we have no shadow of doubt as to the quality of the performance; but one's serious judgment takes a sort of revenge upon the minor artist who may have amused us with the same spectacle. This may involve a certain injustice, but it is inevitable if we would hold high our standard of literary excellence. In the case of Sig. Rovetta, his 'Baraonda' has so much the character of really good work that I hesitate to apply to it these remarks; but then somehow it has suggested them. S. K.

Correspondence.

THE VICIOUS CIRCLE OF OUR CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to a phase of the silver question:

A and B are rival bankers in a small town in Illinois, and there is bitter enmity between them. In exchanging checks, A has balances against B amounting each week to about four thousand dollars. B, to "get even," insists on paying with silver dollars, which he gets from the assistant United States treasurer free of all charges. A must accept them, and each week sends several thousand silver dollars to his banker in Springfield, who ships them to Chicago at one dollar per thousand express charges. So they go in a circle every week, causing trouble, expense, and many bad words.

Very truly, H.

Springfield, Ill., January 19, 1895.

CONFEDERATE STATISTICS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is, I feel sure, not the desire of so able and broad-minded a journal as the *Nation* to do intentional injustice to any one, yet the friends of the late Gen. D. H. Hill cannot help feeling that in your issue of December 20, 1894, you seriously misjudge that officer.

In criticising his report of the numerical strength of his division in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam, you say:

"His statistical returns to the adjutant-general on September 22 reported 5,071 as the effective force of officers and men present for duty—a quick resurrection of the annihilated division! It is not pretended that he received any reinforcements. His killed and his wounded he reported at 2,316, and, adding these to the number present after the battle, it is proved that he had at least 7,387 on the 13th of September, leaving out the missing."

From the 13th to the 22d there were two battles fought, and this report of 7,387 men present was made five days after the last of these.

Is there not a fallacy in this method of estimating the number of troops present at a given time? Try it by an analogous case. On the 22d of September (the same date as Hill's report), Hooker's corps, according to the itemized field returns for that day (Official Records, Series 1, Part 2, p. 349) had present for duty 15,239 officers and men. Now, applying your method of proof, this corps must have had, on any immediately antecedent date, say the 18th, this number, 15,239, plus the casualties of any intervening battles. It so happens, however, that there were no casualties in these four days. So, by this plan, "it is proved" that on the 18th this corps must have had 15,239 officers and men present for duty. But from the field returns of General Meade (p. 349) we find that it actually had only 6,364! No reinforcements had come to this corps. Simply 8,875 men had, according to this official count, been, by the incidents of war, separated from their commands, but were back for duty by the 22d.

If, then, Hooker's corps could in four days increase, by the return of its scattered men, 8,875, was it so utterly impossible for Hill's division, from the same cause, to increase 71 men in nine days? I say 71 men, because he reported his division at 5,000 on the 13th and at 5,071 on the 22d, nine days later. The returning men, scattered by nearly a month's (from August 20) marching and fighting, but getting back into place with the end of the campaign, just about counterbalanced his casualties.

That Gen. Hill was right in his statement of his strength on the 13th is shown (1) by official testimony. You insist on the returns of the adjutant-general. Adjutant-General W. H. Taylor of the Army of Northern Virginia says that Hill had less than 5,000 men at South Mountain ('Battles and Leaders,' vol. ii, p. 578, editor's note). (2.) By historical testimony. Lossing ('History of the Civil War,' vol. ii, p. 469), Swinton ('Army of the Potomac,' p. 202), Longstreet (article on Maryland campaign, 'Battles and Leaders,' vol. ii, p. 665), and others all substantially corroborate this figure. (3.) By the testimony of his subordinates in their reports, Hill had, on the morning of the 14th, five brigades, numbering on that morning as follows:

Rodes's, official report	1,250
Garland's (Garland was killed), McRae, his successor, reports less than	1,000
Anderson's (killed, no report), Col. F. M. Parker says	1,000
Ripley's (gives no numbers in report), Col. W. L. DeRossett says	1,230
Colquitt's	1,100
	5,580

If Garland's and Anderson's brigades were both under the numbers used in the summary, we see that Gen. Hill is perfectly borne out.

D. H. Hill, Jr.

Raleigh, N. C.

[The capital fact which we have insisted upon is, that both armies had a system of statistical reports, made for the purpose of having records of statistics from which there should be no appeal. These are known as the adjutant-general's returns. They are the *only* authority as to numbers present, absent on duty, sick, etc. They are made at regular and frequent intervals, they carry forward the comparison with last reports, they account for all changes, and "prove" like a merchant's books.

Other official reports are made of strategical movements, of battles and skirmishes, of marches and retreats. This second class often refers to numbers in a general way, but is in no sense intended to be, nor is in fact, statistical reporting. That is specially provided for, as we have stated. When the reports of battles, etc., in mentioning numbers, differ from the official statistical returns of the adjutant-general's office, the latter are the only authoritative criterion. Having access to a merchant's books, we do not fix his debits and credits by his casual correspondence, or his accounts of his business given on the street—we go to his books of account.

This is precisely what we have asserted with regard to army history. The official "books of account" are the statistical returns of the adjutant-general. They are

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the appointed and only authority for figures. They must be applied to the National army and to the Confederates alike. The examples of doing otherwise which we gave in our reply to Gen. Fitzhugh Lee's note show the transparent sophistry of so doing. Further debate only makes this plainer.

All real students of the history of our civil war have been eagerly awaiting the completed publication of the Official Records, for the purpose of having these statistics put beyond dispute. It must be regarded as a dishonesty to ignore their authority, or talk of any descriptive reports of battles as if they could override these official statistics. Books which were written and published before the official publication, were excusable for using such evidence as was then available; now, writers are not. One of the authors named by Mr. Hill uses the identical sophisms which we exposed, in quoting estimates in round numbers and mere hearsay in contradiction of the official statistics. The only strong apology for Gen. D. H. Hill's descriptive report would be to say that he did not pretend to accuracy in his "round numbers," knowing that the statistical tables had been forwarded and would be referred to if accurate figures were wanted.

The reference to Gen. Meade's report of the numbers in Hooker's corps, after the battle of Antietam, does not militate against our position, but directly confirms it. He distinctly says his division commanders have been ordered "to account for the increase," and make these statistical tables tally with those that have gone before. Neither Union nor Confederate writers of any authority have used the reduced figures of Hooker's straggling corps in estimating the total of McClellan's army in the Antietam campaign. The wrong method we criticised was (among other things) the deduction of stragglers on the Confederate side while this was not done as to the National side.

If the discussion shall impress on the reading public the indisputable fact that there are official statistical tables which are the ultimate and only appeal on both sides, and must be used alike on both, the common sophistry which we have exposed will disappear from the treatment of our civil war. As the Southern archives were only partly saved, the discussion of Confederate numbers sometimes makes it necessary to argue backward from a subsequent report (an antecedent one being missing); while the regular series on the National side, being complete, saves the necessity of this. The data, however, are generally clear, and arithmetic is competent to deal with them conclusively.—Ed. Nation.]

CHARLES BRYANT IN ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Mr. John W. Bingham, in your paper of the 3d inst., criticising my article, "A Chapter of Alaska," in the January number of the *New England Magazine*, must either have been most carelessly written, or else shows a spirit unworthy of any true critic. I am quite willing, however, to answer its strictures.

(1.) No claim is made that Capt. Bryant ever did set foot on Alaskan soil prior to 1868, though it is true that he had done so at uninhabited points for wood and water, and sometimes when near the shore to let the men get a touch of the land. It was well known to all whalers that the Russians were opposed to having vessels other than their own come into their ports.

(2.) Mr. Bingham's assertion that Capt. Bryant made "only two or three cruises in the North Pacific" is incorrect. Capt. Bryant spent seventeen years in that region.

(3.) No claim is made in the article that Capt. Bryant ever did command a whale-ship as captain. He held the position of first mate, acting as captain only when required. The title of captain was frequently disclaimed by him; but, as often happens, it has become so fixed by popular usage that he is never called by any other name.

(4.) The article does not claim that Capt. Bryant was acquainted with the habits of the seals and the conditions of the islands previous to his residence there in 1869. Nor was *any one* so acquainted. Mr. Bingham says that "neither Bryant nor McIntyre knew anything about the seal-islands," and that "their reports were not the result of any study of the seal-life." The truth is, that in 1869 Capt. Bryant made a close and special study of the seals; up to that time even the best naturalists had been ignorant of the peculiar and distinctive habits of the *fur*-seals, so entirely different from any other of their species. As a result of Capt. Bryant's observations and special study in 1869, his reports were published the following year, giving *the first* account of seal-life in detail. This knowledge was obtained by observation of the seals in their nurseries and by the aid of the most intelligent natives. As it was necessary that a Russian clerk be employed as interpreter, Capt. Bryant asked that Mr. S. N. Buynitsky, one of the department clerks at Washington, be sent up to assist him in taking charge of one of the islands; and this man remained there during the winter of 1870, while Capt. Bryant was called to Washington in consultation. The Russian creole referred to by Mr. Bingham was employed as a translator by the commander of the revenue vessel sent up to protect our interests—a department of the service entirely outside Capt. Bryant's jurisdiction.

(5.) Mr. Bingham's assertion that Capt. Bryant was sent up to the seal-islands by Boutwell to watch the "bad men of the leasing company, and Dr. McIntyre in especial," is absurd. Dr. McIntyre left his position in Washington to act as assistant to our new collector of customs at Sitka, and he and Capt. Bryant coöperated in all necessary ways. He resumed his former position in Washington the following year, and afterwards resigned to serve as business manager in the employ of the A. C. Co., remaining with them during the whole twenty years of their lease, till 1890. Capt. Bryant and Dr. McIntyre have always had the highest esteem for each other, and are still warm friends.

(6.) In Mr. Bingham's statement that Capt. Bryant "stayed there just as long as he could stay—seven years—until Bristow removed him," there is an insinuation as discourteous as it is ungrounded. He stayed as long as he wished, which was nine years, from 1868 to 1877; and he was not removed by Bristow nor by any one. At the time of our purchase Mr. Boutwell did not favor the project; but in 1869, when it came under his jurisdiction as head of the Treasury Department, as his knowledge of the matter widened, he fully approved Capt. Bryant's measures in administering the affairs of the islands, assuring him that he had the entire confidence and support of the officials at Washington. Later, after political reasons entered into the public affairs of Alaska, Capt. Bryant resigned in due course, under Sherman's administration of the department, and retired to private life for private reasons. I should be very glad, as I am sure Capt. Bryant would be, to have anybody who cares about this matter refer either to Mr. Boutwell or Mr. Sherman as to the truth. Prof. Agassiz, Prof. Benjamin Peirce, and Mr. Blaine—all of whom were so familiar with Capt. Bryant's work—are dead, or they could add their emphatic testimony; but it is not necessary, for these things were not done in a corner.

(7.) The researches of Charles Sumner for material for his famous speech on the ratification of the treaty were thorough and far-reaching; for, as his biographer says, "no complete description of the territory existed, and his collection of facts treated of its fisheries, furs, timber, minerals, physical features, commerce, climate, history, and inhabitants, as also its possibilities in its new character as a possession of the United States." Among these sources of information was the testimony of Charles Bryant, which Mr. Sumner did seek, did acknowledge, did use, and did value. "Flimsy notes of whales and weather" (*vide* Mr. Bingham) were not sought nor needed. The emphasis which Mr. Bingham gives to this particular misstatement is sufficient to discredit all else which he has to say. Volume xi. of Sumner's Works contains the speech on "The Cession of Russian America," pp. 181-350. In this speech Mr. Sumner not only quotes verbatim from one of Capt. Bryant's letters, but makes this further reference: "His report goes beyond any chart of soundings I have seen, although the charts are coincident as far as they go." It may be said here that Mr. Sumner here speaks of Capt. Bryant as "Charles Bryant, Esq., a member of the Massachusetts Legislature," and also as "the retired shipmaster," thus courteously recognizing his standing. Capt. Bryant's journals and letters, containing a faithful record of his observations, were known to various scientific men, who recognized their high value, and Sumner was led by them to seek that information which he at any rate deemed sufficiently important to incorporate in his speech. At the date of Mr. Sumner's speech, the history of the seal-islands had not begun; to this end Charles Bryant was *selected* to go out as the honored agent of our Government, fully empowered and intrusted by the highest authorities in the United States to legislate for the good of all concerned. His success is a matter of history, and his records became a guide to those who have succeeded him.

(8.) Capt. Bryant's reports, sent to Washington yearly, are there on record, and are consulted by all in search of information in that line. They are not only valued as reliable, but have been spoken of as remarkable for their clearness and condensation. The 'History of the North American Pinnipeds,' No. xii., by Prof. J. A. Allen of Cambridge, published in Washington in 1880, by the Department of the Interior, contains a study of seal-life by Mr. Bryant, which should be seen in connection; and at the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy

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at Cambridge are several specimens of fur-seals contributed by him.

If such work, the work of a man who was never self-seeking, but who gave his best efforts to improving the conditions of a simple people and to the faithful performance of a public trust, be the fruit of "illiteracy," then may the seed of such illiteracy be sown broadcast over the land. C. E. CABOT.

BOSTON, January 12, 1895.

P. S.—"J. A.," in your paper of the 10th inst., is writing of some other man. The Charles Bryant of the *New England* "Chapter" made his first voyage, a short one, in 1840–'41, on the Atlantic sperm-grounds, in the brig *Montezuma;* his second cruise was on the *Julian*, from 1841–'44, through the Pacific Ocean to the northwest coast, and in the region between British Columbia and the Peninsula of Alaska—a very successful voyage. His third cruise was as third mate of the *Nimrod*, in the North Pacific from 1845–'48, returning as second mate. His fourth cruise was from 1848–'51, in the Bering and Arctic Seas, returning as second mate. His fifth cruise was from 1851–'54, on the *Euphrates*, returning as first mate; and his sixth cruise, from October, 1854, to May, 1858, was as first mate on the *John Howland* of New Bedford, Capt. Alex. Taylor. These facts are on record, and go to prove "J. A.'s" criticism of no value.

I thank "H." for his fairly stated word of corroboration. But he makes one error in speaking of Capt. Bryant as *assistant agent.* Charles Bryant was *never* assistant agent; he was the chief, the head, the Special Agent of our Government on the seal-islands, the first one sent up there; and he held his position for nine successive years. C. E. C.

BOSTON, January 14, 1895.

[We can publish nothing more on this subject.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

PROF. THOMAS EGLESTON of the School of Mines, Columbia College, is preparing a revised and enlarged edition of his 'Life of John Paterson' of the Revolutionary Army, and desires information and documents of any kind bearing upon Gen. Paterson's career. He will bear the expense of transcripts of such papers. His publishers, G. P. Putnam's Sons, announce further: 'Personal Recollections of War Times, 1861–'65,' by Albert Gallatin Riddle; 'A Literary History of the English People,' by J. J. Jusserand; the third volume of Traill's 'Social England'; 'Voice, Speech, and Gesture,' by Hugh Campbell and others.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Pygmies,' by A. de Quatrefages.

Ufer's 'Introduction to the Pedagogy of Herbart,' translated by J. C. Zinser, is nearly ready to be published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. will issue in March Defoe's 'Journal of the Plague Year,' edited by Byron S. Hurlbut of Harvard College.

'Dr. Judas' is the title of a work by an opium-eater, William Rosser Cobbe, relating to the habit, and to be published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

The Hartford Seminary Press will issue immediately a second (revised) edition of Davis's 'Vocabulary of New Testament Words.'

'Transplanted Manners,' by Elizabeth E. Evans, is about to be published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London (New York: Scribners). The scene of the novel is laid in "Pension Irgendwo," a boarding-house on a German lake, where persons from different countries come together and exhibit their individual and national traits of character.

The Scribners publish 'Venezia,' adapted by Mrs. Arthur Bell (N. D'Anvers) from the German of Henry Perl, and illustrated by 210 drawings by Venetian artists. The text is a mere vehicle for the illustrations, and is of the sketchy, not to say sloppy, order common to such publications. The illustrations are remarkably good, and succeed as well as possible in conveying some idea of that wonderful sea-city, which cannot be represented in black-and-white, and has never been adequately rendered even in color. We cannot commend what Mr. H. D. Traill, in his introduction, calls the "richly but chastely decorated covers."

We have received four additional volumes of the International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels, namely, 'Redgauntlet,' two, and 'The Betrothed' and 'The Talisman,' one each (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co). Mr. Lang expatiates with warm praise on 'Redgauntlet,' for its qualities Shaksperian and autobiographic, and this volume has also much the best etched illustrations—since they are nearly all scenic. Apart from a few character-studies, the figure designs are feeble almost without exception. Of the two Crusader novels Mr. Lang prefers 'The Betrothed,' which he had never read till called upon by his present editorial function so to do. It is not amiss to remark that we are now arrived at the thirty-eighth volume in this series, and that ten more remain to be issued in this country, whereas across the water the conclusion was reached by the end of August last! Is not this one more indictment against a copyright act which compels a protected book to be manufactured in this country?

The appearance of Prof. A. S. Cook's 'Glossary of the Old Northumbrian Gospels' (Halle: Niemeyer; New York: Westermann) will be hailed with satisfaction by philologists on both continents. Though complete in itself, the Glossary is the first instalment of the author's long-expected work on the Old Northumbrian dialect, and its publication gives promise of the early completion of that arduous and important undertaking. The inconsiderate are prone to regard glossarizing as mechanical toil. This judgment, wrong in any case, would be ludicrously wide of the mark in the present instance. The mass of material here scientifically arranged could not have been even collected—to say nothing of its codification—without a profound knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon dialects. In other words, the Glossary not only implies the systematic Grammar—not yet published, though nearly ready—but much else which we hope Prof. Cook will not allow to slumber in his note-books. The *Nation* is not the place for the minute examination of a work addressed solely to specialists. We must therefore rest content with expressing in general terms our appreciation of the author's fidelity, learning, and acumen. The Glossary is in the highest degree creditable to American scholarship, and will do much to establish the study of Anglo-Saxon dialectology on a firm basis.

Students of English owe much to Professor Wülker of Leipzig for his latest service to science—the publication of a photographic reproduction of the Vercelli MS. ('Codex Vercellensis: Die angelsächsische Handschrift zu Vercelli in getreuer Nachbildung.' Leipzig: Veit & Co.). The four chief collections of Anglo-Saxon verse are the Beowulf MS. in the British Museum, the Cædmon MS. in the Bodleian, the Exeter MS. in the Cathedral Library, and the Codex Vercellensis. The last-named is of course rather inaccessible, though more than one enthusiastic scholar has braved the dulness and the discomforts of an Italian provincial town for its sake. The present facsimile puts this precious document into the hands of anybody who cares to pay a very moderate sum to possess it. It reduces the size of the pages by one-half, but is singularly clear and legible. The only exception to its legibility is at folio 54*a*, where a great smear, the result of some one's use of a reagent, defaces the original. Only the poetical part of the codex, or about a quarter of the whole, is reproduced, the remaining three-fourths containing prose homilies of minor interest. In a brief introduction Professor Wülker discusses the question how the manuscript got to Vercelli.

M. Henry Bordeaux's 'Âmes Modernes' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is a series of studies of very modern writers, Ibsen, Loti, Hérédia, Lemaître, Rod, and Villiers de l'Isle Adam, preceded by a chapter on "Symbolic Characters." M. Bordeaux dares be true to his convictions, and his admiration of Ibsen, on grounds clearly established by him, is noteworthy in presence of the discredit cast upon that dramatist by Sarcey and Lemaître; but M. Bordeaux is a philosopher. The chapter on Villiers de l'Isle Adam is worth much more than the whole book on that remarkable writer which was recently noticed in these columns. M. Bordeaux may seem a trifle heavy at times, but it is weight of thought which is the cause of this defect of style.

After an interval of three years, Mr. James Clegg, Rochdale, England, has issued a fourth and enlarged edition of his very useful and trustworthy 'International Directory of Second-Hand Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual,' including lists of the world's public libraries, publishers, book-collectors, learned societies and institutions, theological colleges, Burns clubs, etc. Stress is laid upon the fulness of the list of public libraries, but in the case of the United States it is obvious that the half has not been told, although there is no hint at any limitation based on size, and generally, perhaps, the number of volumes is not stated—a defect from the bookseller's point of view. But the buyer of this little book abundantly gets his money's worth.

A new contribution to the already voluminous Bismarck literature is Wilhelm von Bülow's 'Neue Bismarck-Erinnerungen' (Berlin: Steinitz). The reminiscences go back to Bismarck's first meeting with Prince Wilhelm (afterwards Wilhelm I.) at a court ball, not in 1844, as here stated, but in the winter of 1835-6, and consist chiefly of lively anecdotes, which are entertaining reading, but do not add anything of importance to our knowledge, or modify our appreciation, of the German diplomatist and statesman.

More systematic in arrangement and more satisfactory as a biography is Wilhelm Buchner's 'Feldmarschall Graf Helmut von Moltke' (Lahr: Schauenburg), which has been issued as a "Festgabe" for the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the decisive battle of Sedan. The author's aim is, as he expresses it, to trace the growth of the inner man, and to disclose Moltke's *Gemüthsleben*, or the emotional side of his nature. In so doing he quotes largely from the letters of the distin-

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guished field-marshal, which have been, for the most part, already printed. The frontispiece is a portrait of Moltke from a photograph taken in 1872.

The London *Bookman* is to have an American edition, under the direction of Prof. H. T. Peck of Columbia and James Macarthur, with a corps of American assistants. Dodd, Mead & Co. will give it their imprint.

Prof. H. B. Hulbert and Dr. H. G. Appenzeller of Seoul propose to reissue the *Korean Repository*, which flourished in 1892. This monthly magazine will be devoted to literary, scientific, linguistic, and archæological matters, while giving a monthly digest of news in the Land of Morning Calm.

Mr. A. W. Pollard takes the floor in the December *Portfolio* (Macmillan), and discourses with competence on "Italian Book Illustrations, chiefly of the Fifteenth Century." Venice and Florence furnish his longest chapters, and in the latter much attention is given to the illustrated Savonarola literature. He plausibly suggests a kinship between Francesco Buonaccorsi, who printed the earliest dated Savonarola tract, and the monk himself, a member of that family, whereby "Savonarola may have had some direct share in the introduction of artistic book-illustration in Florence." His sermons, at all events, show that "he was keenly alive to the service which art might render to the cause of religion." Mr. Pollard lays stress on the fact that it was the needs of the humbler and non-literary classes that induced book-illustration; the wealthy went without, or employed hand-work. He has a weighty and very just general remark that "the books which have been designed to please the eyes of a more cultivated class . . . have seldom been entirely successful. The soberness of printed books appears to resent attempts at too great magnificence, and few artists of note, when they have attempted book-illustration, have worked with any due sense of the limitations imposed on them by the necessities of the press." This monograph is very abundantly illustrated from early examples; most curious, perhaps, being the "Triumph of Love" of the 1499 Florence edition of Petrarch's "Trionfi," but derived from another source than the unique copy in the Victor Emanuel library at Rome, which was facsimiled a year or two ago. Pacini, the publisher, reproduced it on the title-page of another work in 1508.

The January number of the *Portfolio* is a monograph on "The Early Work of Raphael," by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). Under this title is included everything the artist did during his Umbrian and Florentine periods and up to the time of his departure for Rome in 1508. Mrs. Ady closely follows Morelli, and her text may be taken as giving the current conclusions with regard to Raphael's work during this period; and the illustrations, as usual in this publication, are excellent. The frontispiece is an admirable photogravure of the charming "Madonna del Granduca."

A most attractive field for the archæologist and explorer is described by Mr. G. R. Lees in the *Geographical Journal* for January, in his account of a recent journey across southern Bashan. The character of this little-known region on the east of the Jordan is rapidly changing with the advent of the Circassians, who have been planted here in considerable numbers by the Turkish Government. The deserted sites of ancient cities, as Amman, the former Rabbath-Ammon, or Philadelphia, for instance, are becoming towns full of life and activity. But this returning population means the destruction of many priceless monuments of the times of the Roman occupation, and possibly of earlier races, which are scattered over these plains. At one place "masons were at work splitting the large stones" of ruined temples and churches "for the erection and completion of houses." The Bedawin, according to Mr. Lees, are gradually being dispossessed of their country by the newcomers, who are "a people not only more industrious, but more religious, and more inclined to pay the taxes." Several ruined cities, hitherto unknown, were discovered, and some inscriptions obtained, but the hostility of the natives made a thorough exploration impossible. Other articles are upon Mashonaland and the Westland Alps of New Zealand, whose glaciers show an astonishing rapidity of movement, the maximum observation being 207 inches per day. Prof. Coleman of Toronto describes a journey to Mount Brown at the source of the Athabasca, which he found to be about 9,000 feet high, instead of nearly 16,000 feet, the altitude usually given to it by geographers.

"The Economic Development of Canada" is the subject of a suggestive article by Sir Charles Tupper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January. From a large array of statistics we take the most important facts. The railway system has increased since 1867 from 2,000 miles to over 15,000. A tonnage of more than a million tons places the Dominion "fifth in the list of ship-owning countries," between Germany and France. The aggregate trade has almost doubled since confederation, amounting to nearly $250,000,000 in 1893, while the interprovincial trade has grown from four to one hundred millions of dollars. In industries, Canadian cheese "is rapidly supplanting American cheese in the British market." In 1873 and 1893 the exports of this article were respectively 24,000,000 lbs. and 134,000,000 lbs., in round numbers. The exports of the United States for 1881 and 1893 were 147,000,000 lbs. and 81,000,000 lbs.; this latter figure being 10,000,000 lbs. below the return for 1873. The efforts of the Government to promote the dairy industry "by sending travelling dairies, with competent instructors and lecturers, throughout the different provinces, for the practical demonstration of the best methods of manufacture, packing, and marketing," it is hoped will produce a corresponding development of this industry. The McKinley tariff has proved a blessing in disguise by stimulating Canadians to find new markets for their products. Illustrating the paper is a valuable series of maps and diagrams showing the routes to Canada, its political divisions, orography, geology, rainfall, temperature, aggregate trade, trade exchanges, exports, imports, and bank deposits.

It is to be regretted that the strange variations in the character of seasons from year to year have been subjected to so little really careful investigation. From the so-called "blackberry winter" of Arkansas and Kentucky, when an abnormal lowering of temperature during May, while blackberries are in blossom, is said to insure an abundant supply of fruit, to the sudden Florida "norther" which ruins the orange crop, the industries of half the country at large are affected more or less seriously by vagaries of climate. Some of the causes of these irregularities are investigated, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for January, by H. Gawthrop, who ventures the conclusion that variations in the character of the seasons must be traced through all effects of diurnal and seasonal insolation, and of cyclonic storms in the lower air, to the immense, ever-flowing westerly current above. This great atmospheric flow is likened to a vast river, with a swift current in the middle, but which oscillates north and south with the sun, varying also with the character of the continents and oceans over which it passes. Other influences are cited, the wide-reaching and high cyclones of the tropics among them; and the writer's final result seems to be that accurate forecasts of our seasons can be made only when this great unnamed river of the atmosphere, gaining its first impulse from the rotation of the earth, shall have become thoroughly known from highest-altitude observations.

The "invitation" of ladies to the ordinary meetings of the Royal Astronomical Society of London is dealt with in recent printed announcements directing the attention of fellows to the fact that ladies are admitted to such evening meetings of the society only "by special invitation of the president, sanctioned by the Council," the invitations being issued at the commencement of each session. It is to be hoped that the penalty to any fellow assisting any lady in running this blockade of formality is a gentle one, and to the lady gentler still.

Two portions of the succinct report of Newnham College, Cambridge, for 1893-94 possess general interest, viz., that which contains an account of the presentation of the Clough memorial gates (November 3, 1894), and a tabular statement of the present occupations of former students. The wish of the Newnham students who had been privileged to reside there during the rule of the noble woman whose quiet firmness and womanly tact did so much to advance the higher education of women in England, was to contribute a memorial which should, by some outward and visible sign, "associate together the name of Miss Clough and the college so long as the college should exist." Beautiful and costly bronze gates, fashioned mainly by handwork, in the roadway between the old and the new halls, were the selection of the committee in charge. A balance of £80 becomes the nucleus of a fund placed in the Principal's hands, "open for a term of years, to all who may desire to contribute to it," and to be used, in small grants, for the assistance of students. Of the 720 students who left Newnham from October, 1871, to June, 1893, sixteen deaths and thirty-seven foreigners gone home give a remainder of 667 to be accounted for in active life. Of these, 374 (or about 56 per cent.) have taken teaching for a profession; 245 of these are head or assistant mistresses in public, endowed, or private schools, 23 are private governesses, 27 are teaching in the United States or the colonies; the rest are lecturers, visiting teachers, etc. Of those students not professionally engaged in teaching, about 230 are living at home, 108 being married; five are engaged in medical work, two are missionaries, one has taken up market-gardening, one is a bookbinder, several are doing charity-organization work, and the small residue "are mainly engaged in secretarial work." It is doubtful whether this collegiate record of professional usefulness can be proportionally matched by any graduate list from colleges for either sex, either in Great Britain or in the United States.

At a recent meeting of the society organized less than a year ago for the purpose of founding a Mädchen-Gymnasium in Munich, Bavaria, it was resolved to proceed at once to the establishment of such an institution with eight classes, in connection with the public schools. This resolution indicates a laudable energy on

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the part of the society in accomplishing the object for which it was formed.

We have the following from a distant reader: "In the *Nation's* last issue of 1894, the correspondent who shows that Yale College was founded on books and not on brawn, brings to mind the fact that Harvard also had a similar foundation. In 1638, before one tree had been felled for building the proposed college, the will of John Harvard bequeathed to that institution, together with one-half of his estate valued at £779 17s. 2d., his whole library of 320 volumes. A list of all these books is preserved in the University archives, though all the volumes themselves save one were burned in 1764. But they had been for more than a century and a quarter placed where they would do the most good. The catalogue ought to be published *in extenso*. It had Bacon's name—but not Shakspere's. Greek was represented there by Homer, Isocrates, Plutarch, and Lucan; Latin by Pliny, Sallust, Terence, Juvenal, and Horace."

—The *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) for January opens with a somewhat detailed "appreciation" of the late Prof. Helmholtz, by his colleague, Prof. Stumpf of Berlin, whose qualifications no one will doubt who is familiar with Stumpf's work on the theory of sound-sensation and music, in his 'Tonpsychologie.' The title of the article, "Hermann von Helmholtz and the New Psychology," will indicate to our readers the scope of Prof. Stumpf's admirably discriminating and sensible article. We are especially struck with the remarks on the theories of "unconscious judgment" and "specific energies," the two points of view, one in physiology and the other in psychology, which gave Helmholtz and his friends most embarrassment, and on the matter of which—as Stumpf notes explicitly in what he says of specific energies—the world is not yet much wiser than Helmholtz was. His passing suggestion of a comparison of Helmholtz with Darwin certainly strikes one as a "putting together of incommensurables"; and yet if we draw the circumscribing horizon of discourse wide enough, the comparison is instructive. Americans will note with sadness, especially those who met Helmholtz in Chicago and elsewhere, that it was during his absence from home, on account of our Columbian Exposition, that he met the beginning of his end. In the same article Prof. Stumpf intimates that the new edition of Helmholtz's 'Physiologische Optik,' which has been so long in execution, will be finished with only bibliographical alterations of the old edition. In the same *Review*, medical readers will be interested in Dr. Starr's contribution to the problem of the "Location of the Muscular Sense in the Brain Cortex."

—Although as a rule we do not notice grammars, we mention 'A Text Book of Modern Spanish,' by M. M. Ramsey, B.S. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.), because of the very great advance it shows over all existing Spanish grammars in English. This applies to almost every detail of the work. To begin with, the present use of the graphic accent in Spanish is, for the first time in an English book, clearly and accurately described as well as rigidly applied. This, it need hardly be said, will prove an immense relief to teachers who have had to struggle with the confusions and inconsistencies in this matter which abound in previous text-books. Passing to things of a more fundamental kind, we are struck by the fulness, clearness, and precision of statement everywhere shown; and, what is still more gratifying, we find this best exhibited where the difficulties of the subject most require it, *e. g.*, in the treatment of the uses and correspondence of tenses, of the passive voice, of the subjunctive mood, of the rules of agreement. If we were to make a criticism here, it would be to express a regret that the author has not more resolutely employed the grammatical categories which the grammarians of Greek and Latin have found so useful. By so doing he would, in our opinion, have made still clearer his excellent treatment of conditions, wishes, clauses of purpose, result, time, etc. On the other hand, we must congratulate Prof. Ramsey on the appositeness as well as on the fresh and idiomatic character of his numerous examples. His exercises, also, are much above the run of those in ordinary grammars, both for variety and for interest.

—The very thoroughness with which the author has done his work, however, suggests a question of considerable importance for future writers, not only of Spanish, but also of all modern-language grammars, namely, whether the time has not come for separating grammar proper from its usual accompaniments of vocabulary and practice-work, leaving the latter to be treated in special introductory manuals. The Greek and Latin grammarians long since adopted this plan, and with excellent results. Why should the grammarians of modern tongues persist in a clumsy, unscientific method, that meets the needs neither of the beginner nor of the advanced student? Is it wise, for example, for Prof. Ramsey to inflict upon the former a treatise of over six hundred and fifty pages, in which are combined a grammar, a rhetoric, a manual of conversation, and a language drill-book? It seems to us not. For, to say nothing of the unwieldy bulk of the book, the effect of the plan on the whole manner of treatment is often very unfortunate. The necessities of the practice-book constantly compel division and confusion in the discussion of grammatical principles; while, on the other hand, the full exposition of the latter frequently overbalances the real necessities of drill. We hope the time is not far distant when all the chief modern languages will be treated for beginners in practical elementary text-books, similar to the numerous excellent lesson-books in Latin and Greek; while the advanced student will be provided with systematic grammatical treatises like the best classical grammars. In the meantime, no serious student of Spanish can afford to be without Prof. Ramsey's work; and it may be that the skilful teacher will find a way to employ it successfully even in elementary instruction.

—After three years' experiment of an independent theatre as a personal venture, Mr. J. T. Grein announces its incorporation as "The Independent Theatre, Limited," with a modest capital of £4,500, represented by 3,500 ordinary shares of £1 each, and 1,000 founders' shares of the same value. The company proposes to continue and extend "the great service" which it is claimed the Independent Theatre has already rendered to the London stage, by the production for a limited series of performances of plays of artistic merit and literary interest, but of which the commercial value is uncertain. The main object will be, as hitherto, "not competition with other theatres, . . . but to assist them by discovering new authors of merit as well as new actors and actresses of talent." Experience having proved that it is impossible to cover the expenses by a single performance, each play in future will be given several times, probably a week in each case. Shareholders and "critics" will enjoy the exclusive privilege of first performances; the rest are intended to enlighten the general public. One source of income to the new company is a fixed percentage on the profits arising from any subsequent performances of these plays, Mr. Grein having also made over to the company all rights held by him in works already produced under his management. In addition to free seats, the glittering promise of a dividend is held out to shareholders, and every subscriber of 10 ordinary shares is entitled to 1 founders' share—the balance of these latter being allotted to Mr. Grein, "as his sole remuneration." The new season is now opening with "Thyrza Fleming," an original play by Miss Dorothy Leighton, who is associated with Mr. Grein as one of the two "permanent directors" of the corporation. Later a second performance will include Mr. William Heinemann's play, "The First Step," and during the year it is proposed to give advocates of the modern drama an opportunity to criticise native plays by Mr. George Bernard Shaw, Mr. Hubert Crackanthorpe, Mrs. Oscar Beringer, etc., besides translations of works by Ibsen, Edward Brandes, and Gerhart Hauptmann. It remains to be seen whether London playgoers are to place "on a sound footing an Independent Theatre, where good original works . . . may be sure of a sympathetic hearing."

—In No. 1 of vol. ii. of the Studies published by the University of Nebraska, Mr. E. H. Barbour presents "Additional Notes on the new Fossil, Daimonelix," with twelve process plates. Since the previous publications on the subject, continued search has discovered "some of the best specimens that can ever be found." "The author still counts them anomalous and entirely unique." They occur, below a foot or two of flint, at all depths in the upper two hundred feet of a bed of sand rock more than six hundred feet in thickness, between the Niobrara and the White Rivers of Northwestern Nebraska and Southwestern Dakota, near Pine Ridge. Each fossil is a long, cylindrical body, of several inches in diameter, that descends with an incline varying in different cases from twenty to forty degrees, from a particular level to a depth of five to eight feet, and thence ascends vertically in a closely wound spiral, rising ten inches or more in each circuit, to the level from which it started. "Devil's corkscrews," "twisters," etc., are local names alluding to the spiral portion. The outer portion of each is filled with cellular tissue which in more limited amount extends into the interior. Mr. Barbour says, "The fossil, strange as it may seem, stands undetermined. It has been visited and examined by some of the best botanists, geologists, and palæontologists, and yet none can pass judgment upon it." Various interpretations are discussed, without reaching definite conclusions. If the fossils were burrows, he says, he does not believe they were made on the slopes of hills, or around the edges of a retreating sea, or that they were made under water; he is not certain whether they were burrows or plants, whether the burrower lined his burrow with plants, or whether the plants grew there; he does believe, however, that the fossils were either made or grew where they are found as the sediment was deposited. Our author has indulged in too much mystification. A reasonable interpretation of his data is that the fossils are casts of burrows made in front of an advancing sea at the surface of sands laid down

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by the winds (or, possibly, laid down and left bare for a time by the waters), the cellular structure being that of vegetation which found a favoring lodgment in the accretions of the walls of the burrows as the waters filled them, driving the burrowers to higher levels; the upbuilding continuing until finally the sea rose above the entire area, stopped the burrowing, and covered the sand rock with the flint. A small skeleton found in one specimen may have belonged to an owner of the burrow. Comparative studies of recent burrows would have thrown light on the fossil, and given the contribution a much greater scientific value.

—The fine green color of the much-prized oysters of Marennes was long supposed to be due to the ingestion of salts of copper. This view was succeeded by another which accounted for the greenness by supposing that it was derived from the chlorophyll of certain diminutive marine algæ. This view, in turn, seems to be overthrown by some researches of M. Berthelot, who has been studying the question, and has come to believe that the green of the oyster has no connection with the chlorophyll of plants (on this point the question, he says, is closed); that the oysters contain iron; and that the shells owe their dark color to sulphuret of iron contained in them. The first of these conclusions destroys the chlorophyll theory; the other two are being developed by investigation. M. Chatin has examined the oysters, and the soil of the oyster-beds before and after the treatment (called "*pavage*") to which these oyster "parks" are submitted. He finds in the oyster that the branchiæ, the seat of the coloration, are twice as rich in iron as the rest of its body, and that the depth of the color is in direct proportion to the quantity of iron present. The soil of the beds before the pavage is black with compounds of iron and sulphur and ammonia. Afterwards, in consequence of oxidations, the soil is of an ochre red, and contains only ferric sesquioxide and nitrates and nitrites. The *huître de Marennes*, then, is simply an oyster rich in iron. Perhaps, if it should be exhibited freely and continuously, it might prove a specific in cases of Décadence and other anæmic conditions of literature and art.

"MODERN CONNOISSEURSHIP."

Lorenzo Lotto: An Essay in Constructive Art Criticism. By Bernhard Berenson, author of 'The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance.' G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

THE present work affords an excellent opportunity for the study of that latest form of modern criticism of art which was instituted by Morelli. While differing from Morelli occasionally in his conclusions, Mr. Berenson is a faithful and admiring disciple of that critic's methods, and those methods are pushed by him as far as they can well go. The occasion for examining the methods is all the better in that we have no quarrel with Mr. Berenson's conclusions, and no opposing theory to maintain—are even inclined to admit that he has made out a fairly good case for his contentions, and established the probability, at least, of his views—and can therefore devote ourselves to a dispassionate inquiry into the soundness of his premises and the validity of his reasoning.

The modern form of criticism of which Morelli was the founder bears a close resemblance to that form of literary criticism which is marked by the application of the "metrical test" to the works of Shakspere. The theory of the metrical critics is, that what most of us recognize vaguely as "style" is capable of analysis and exact measurement, so that the difference we feel between the verse of Shakspere and the verse, say, of Fletcher, is a difference which can be scientifically demonstrated. It follows that from the careful study of undoubted works we can arrive at formulæ which will enable us to determine definitely, and almost without possibility of error, the authorship of doubtful works or passages. So Mr. Fleay, for instance, applies the scales and the yard-stick to "Henry VIII.," counts "light endings" and "weak endings," and parcels out that play among some half-dozen collaborators, sharply marking off the scenes and passages supplied by each, and settling to a line where one left off and the other began.

This kind of criticism has always been possible in literature if any one had thought of it, but there are physical reasons why it has only recently become possible in its application to works of art. Books are essentially reproductions, and the scholar could always compare the works of the poets one with another in his own library; works of art, on the contrary, are scattered over the civilized world, and connoisseurship was confined to such vague and limited characteristics of a master as could be carried in the memory from Madrid to St. Petersburg. It was only when the modern perfection of photography made the reproduction of pictures almost as common and as complete as that of books that the "modern connoisseurship" became practicable, and that Morelli was able to state that the first master of Raphael was Timoteo Viti, and that Giorgione painted the "Venus" in the Dresden gallery which had always been called a Titian, and did not paint the "Concert" of the Pitti, which was considered his most celebrated and representative work. Modern photography and modern criticism have upset the catalogues of all the galleries of Europe, changed and changed again the attribution of many famous masterpieces, ignored tradition and denied the authority of Vasari. The crook of a little finger has settled not only the authorship but the date of a picture, until something else has unsettled it again or resettled it another way. Much that has been done is well done, but the ordinary mind is sometimes staggered by the size of the superstructure and the exiguity of the foundation; and the artist, who judges by feeling, is sometimes inclined to dissent from the conclusions of the connoisseur, who judges by some small detail.

By these modern methods Mr. Berenson has attempted to reconstruct the life and career of Lorenzo Lotto, to determine who was his master and what were the paramount influences in forming his style or styles, what pictures he painted, and at what dates, and to read his character and define his personality. Though an interesting painter, Lotto was not a very great one, and the points in dispute about his life and artistic pedigree are not of vast importance one way or the other, so that we may fix our attention on the manner of demonstration rather than on what is sought to be demonstrated. Just what is the apparatus of "modern connoisseurship"? and do those who employ it succeed in proving all that they set out to prove?

No clearer statement of the method itself could be asked for than that which Mr. Berenson gives in his "Introduction," and that statement we shall give as fairly as the necessary condensation will allow. "Given a few documentary notices," he says, "and a number of pictures," how shall we "reconstruct the history of an artist's education and the early years of his career"? "In one way only, and that is by discovering what habits have become so rooted in the artist as to be unconscious, and under what influences he formed them." Direct painting from nature was much less common in the period of the Renaissance than it has since become, and habits of drawing certain details in certain ways were more readily acquired from the master and less easily eradicated in the pupil. "Habits tend to become fixed as they meet with least resistance. . . . It is in the less expressive features . . . that habits of attention are weakest and habits of execution, consequently, strongest." Those features are less expressive "which are less capable of a sudden change of look." These are the ears first, then the hands. Even less expressive are such things as the hair, the drapery, etc. So that the points at which the modern critic looks to form his judgment are therefore "the ears, the hands, the hair, the folds, certain idiosyncrasies of pose, and certain settings and backgrounds, as pronest to being executed in a stereotyped fashion." It is to these details, then, and almost exclusively to these details, that the modern connoisseur looks to tell him the history of an artist, to proclaim who was his master, or to establish the authenticity of this or that work attributed to him. This is the apparatus; let us see how it is employed.

Vasari states that Lorenzo Lotto was a pupil of Giovanni Bellini, and this statement has been accepted and repeated by all modern writers, even by Morelli. Berenson believes him to have been a pupil of Alvise Vivarini, and to establish this thesis is one of the main objects of his book. We do not think it unfair to state his conclusion before giving his course of reasoning, for the use of such phrases as "if we can persuade ourselves" would seem to show that this was, at least occasionally, the order in the mind of the writer himself. Of course the first necessity is to get rid of Vasari's testimony and that of those who have followed him. He first shows that all later writers have merely copied Vasari, and then denies that Vasari knew what he was talking about. "We need give no weight to Vasari's statement, except so far as it is borne out by facts." What are the facts? Titian and Palma, pupils of Bellini, were profoundly influenced by their fellow-pupil Giorgione. Lotto was a little younger than they and a very impressionable artist (Crowe and Cavalcaselle call him "a mush of concession"), and it is not conceivable that he should have resisted the influence to which they succumbed. As he shows this influence very little, he was *not* a pupil of Bellini.

Merely remarking, in passing, that in Mr. Berenson's own 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' issued within the year, Lotto is put down as "pupil of Alvise Vivarini, influenced by Giovanni Bellini *and Giorgione*," let us admit that the destructive part of the argument is at least plausible, and go on to consider the constructive part. The earlier works of Lotto are taken up seriatim, and every coincidence in the pose of a hand or the drawing of a mouth, the curl of an ear or the fold of a drapery, with the work of other masters is noted. We then have a list of possible artistic ancestors, and at first sight it is a queer one. It is: Alvise Vivarini, Jacopo di Barbari, Cima, Montagna, Giovanni Bellini, Basaiti, Bonsignori, Bartolommeo and Antonio Vivarini. This is indeed an "apparent jumble of names."

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Barbari is "supposed to have been a pupil of Giovanni Bellini and rarely in Venice; Montagna . . . has thus far scarcely been connected at all with the Venetian school; . . . Bonsignori . . . having been . . . the pure product of the Veronese School"; Cima is also generally reckoned a pupil of Bellini, and even, by Morelli, the foreman of his shop, while Antonio Vivarini died before Lotto was born, and the resemblance to Bartolommeo's work is to a picture which "it may safely be assumed Lotto had not seen." Bellini is already disposed of, in spite of a striking resemblance in one picture and many general resemblances, and the Vivarini are not difficult to dispose of. What is to be done with the others? It is evident that they must also have been pupils of Alvise.

We will take one instance in some detail and let it stand for the rest. The earliest works of Barbari of ascertainable date were done when he was probably about forty and had come under the influence of Antonello da Messina, yet they show strong resemblances to the work of the Vivarini. It is true that "certain points . . . noted as distinctly Vivarinesque are found in Antonello also, and that Antonello might therefore account for all that [is] explained by the Vivarini" in this and other cases; but that is explained by assuming that Antonello also was strongly influenced by the Vivarini. In other works Barbari reminds us of Cima, but we are shortly to prove that Cima was a pupil of the Vivarini also. The same holds true of Bonsignori. Finally, there is a drawing in the Uffizi, attributed to Garafalo, which we now assign, on internal evidence, to Barbari, and which is so like Alvise that in it "we have one of those precious links that connect master and master all the better for the difficulty of deciding precisely to which it belongs." When Barbari must have begun his apprenticeship, the Bellini were probably not in Venice, and he must naturally have studied with the Vivarini. The Vivarini must have been the great painters of Venice, because Dürer, on his first visit to Venice, admired certain painters who were not the Bellini and may have been the Vivarini. Dürer also admired Barbari, and Barbari "might have introduced him to the Vivarini." Having thus "established the relation of Barbari to the Vivarini, his relations to the young Lotto become at once easy of explanation."

This is necessarily a very bald statement of the argument, but we have tried to make it a rigidly fair one. Mr. Berenson himself seems aware that his logic may sometimes appear "circular." Having made out that Alvise was the head of a great school and the master of so many pupils, it becomes necessary to show what an important artist he himself was, for "the meagre and mangled Alvise who has come down to us" is "every way" inferior even to Cima. Therefore, on the same sort of evidence—the peak of a hood over the Madonna's brow or the shape of a hand and the pose of a foot—this picture and that portrait hitherto attributed to Bellini or Antonello or another are restored to Alvise, and his artistic personality is reconstructed as a preface to that of Lotto. Certainly this seems like proving a great deal. Let us examine a moment some of the specific mannerisms that are made to prove so much. Two habits of the school that are frequently referred to are the practice of drawing the "second phalanx of the thumb larger than the first," and "the great toe shorter than the others." A scoffer might be pardoned for suggesting that any one who had ever drawn a human thumb from life might naturally fall into the first of these habits, and that any one who had ever seen an antique statue might be tempted to adopt the second. Other mannerisms are less ill suited than these to the crucial rôle assigned them. Certain poses of the feet and certain arrangements of drapery may have been peculiar to the school of the Vivarini, but is it fair to take the "Madonna of the Redentore" from Bellini and assign it to Alvise on account of such peculiarities, and then to use these same peculiarities as proof that Lotto was a pupil of Alvise and not of Bellini?

It is only when we come to the portraits which Mr. Berenson attributes to Alvise, however, that we see the full beauty of his style of reasoning. In the first place, he admits that there is only one "perfectly authenticated portrait" by Alvise in existence, and that one "is so repainted that . . . it does not do [him] all the credit it would otherwise." Nevertheless, he proceeds to attribute to him seven other portraits and two portrait drawings, almost all of which have been attributed to other artists, and some of them to more than one other artist. And here we must quote our author at some length. He is discussing a portrait usually attributed to Antonello, and, after some remarks about the drawing of the eyes which have a certain cogency, goes on:

"As in Alvise, but not as in Antonello, the nose is slightly hooked and the nostril inflated. The mouth, as very frequently in Alvise, but never in Antonello, is distinctly turned down at the L. corner (L. from the spectator), and rather turned up at the R., and has altogether more movement and sensitiveness than in Antonello. The cheeks are, for the type of face, fuller in this Layard portrait than in Antonello, and the modelling smoother."

Another portrait, *also attributed to Antonello*, has the same mouth "with one corner turned down and the other tending to curve up," and it also is given to Alvise. Leaving aside the question-begging nature of the argument which takes from Antonello every portrait with a certain kind of mouth, and assigns as a reason for doing so that he never drew mouths so, one is a little astonished to find such reasoning applied to *portraits*. The same thing is done again with regard to one of the drawings where Mr. Berenson "calls particular attention" "to the furrow coming from under the cheek-bone, and in part of its course almost parallel with the furrow coming from the nostril and curling around the mouth," which strongly resembles a furrow on the face of Alvise's "St. Clare." Does Mr. Berenson allow nothing for the direct observation of the model, even in a portrait? Does he mean us to suppose that the twisted mouth and the deep furrow on the cheek were not present in the sitters but invented by the artist; or that, though present, no other artist but Alvise would have reproduced them in his work? One or other of these absurdities he must mean if his reasoning proves anything whatever.

One more instance, and we shall have done. Two portraits are attributed to Savoldo, and these attributions "are indirect proofs of my thesis," says Mr. Berenson, for Savoldo, "if he did not actually begin his career under Alvise, ... began it under Alvise's pupil Bonsignori." Noting that "this theory of Savoldo's descent" he "cannot stop to prove," and that no one before himself has ever made Bonsignori a pupil of Vivarini, let us see how plain-sailing everything becomes.

"In color-scheme the Windsor bust is bituminous, and, having darkened, its effect is remarkably Savoldesque. It is interesting not only because of its great qualities, but also as revealing a phase of Alvise's color which makes us understand whence Savoldo derived *his*; it being a not over-rare occurrence that a pupil was all his life determined by the one phase, even if momentary, in which he happened to find his master."

Thus, having guessed that the portrait is *not* by Savoldo, its *likeness to his work* is a proof that it *is* by Alvise, and also that Savoldo was Alvise's pupil. Verily, one can prove anything by this method.

Of course we have chosen the weakest points of the argument for our comment, as our purpose is to show how weak such an argument may be. After all deductions, there remain a series of coincidences between the group of painters discussed which lend an air of plausibility to Mr. Berenson's theory, and, as we have said, "establish, at least, its probability." All our instances, also, are taken from the first part of the book. The bulk of the volume, which treats of Lotto's own career, we find little fault with. An occasional temerity in fixing by internal evidence the date of a picture, in spite of the confessed fact that many of Lotto's dated works would, in the absence of the date, have been assigned to an entirely different period of his life—an oversubtlety in finding meanings and interpreting character—these are all one need object to The profound study, the great industry, the wide range and minute accuracy of knowledge which the book displays are worthy of all praise. The author's special acquaintance with his subject is so infinitely greater than our own that we should not presume to dispute his conclusions. The method on which he works is, however, open to examination, and we must conclude that the results of the application of "modern connoisseurship" to the history of art can be accepted only with great caution.

The book is admirably printed, provided with every needful aid to the student, and beautifully illustrated with some thirty plates made from the latest and best photographs, many of them taken from the originals expressly for this work.

AUTHENTIC HISTORY.

History of the United States. By E. Benjamin Andrews, President of Brown University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. 2 vols, 8vo, pp. xxiii, 390; xiv, 341. 5 colored maps.

SELDOM is the task of the reviewer made so easy as in the case of this remarkable work. The hand of the learned author has in the preface analyzed with convenient particularity, under seven numbered rubrics, the merits which characterize this new history of the United States. All that is left for the reviewer is to cull from the pages some passages and extracts which the author's modesty has forbidden him to append as proof-texts; and the work speaks for itself. In the following compilation we have ventured simply to change the order of the seven propositions.

(1.) "The Fore-history," we are assured, calls "due attention to what is too commonly missed, the truly epochal character of the adoption of our present Constitution, in 1789." Since this explanation makes it unnecessary to treat of the foundation and meaning of the immortal instrument, we might fairly chide the author for devoting to an account of the period from 1781 to 1789 eighteen pages of his valuable space—almost a fiftieth of his whole matter, and quite as much as he gives to the Colonial Indian wars.

(2.) "Effort has been made . . . . to render the table of contents a truthful and instructive epitome of our national past." From this in-

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teresting category we especially commend to our readers: "Fate of the Mound-builders," "Marco Polo's Travels," "Pocahontas," "Nipmucks Take Part," "Wigs," "The 'Evangeline' History," "Battle of Oriskany," "Redcoats Depart," "Forts Built," "'Tip' 'Levy,' 'Pistareen,'" "The Land of the Free," "Moon Hoax," "Battle of Wilson's Creek," "Hardee Evacuates," "Marble," "Great American Desert," "Horticultural Hall."

(3.) "The following narrative will be found continuous as well as of moderate compass." In no part of the work is this principle better illustrated than in the account of the two civil wars. It appears that after the battle of Bull Run there was a war in the West, beginning with Fort Henry and ending with Johnston's surrender to Sherman in 1865. Thereupon a second war began on the Peninsula in 1862 and lasted through two chapters to Appomattox. So striking an instance of the vitality of two great contestants is uncommon in history.

(4.) "The work strives to observe scrupulous proportion in treating the different parts and phases of our national career." Hence the 78 pages on the military events of the civil-war period are balanced by 82 pages on the United States from 1789 to 1815. Though 12 pages are squandered on Reconstruction, we have 15 on the fisheries dispute. Perhaps the accurate proportions may be better illustrated by two quotations:

"Already President Lincoln was meditating universal emancipation. September 22d the friends of liberty were made glad by a preliminary proclamation, announcing the President's intention to free the slaves on January 1, 1863, should rebellion then continue to exist. It is said that Mr Lincoln would have given this notice earlier but for the gloomy state of military affairs. The day comes. The proclamation goes forth that all persons held as slaves in the rebellious sections 'are and henceforth shall be free.' The blot which had so long stained our national banner was wiped away The Constitution of course does not expressly authorize such an act by the President, but Mr. Lincoln defended it as a 'necessary war measure,' 'warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity.'"

"But as a Titan, towering above all these and all others, stood the great Corliss engine, built by George H. Corliss, of Providence, R. I., one of the most remarkable mechanicians and inventors of the century. A modern Samson, dumb as well as blind, its massive limbs of shining steel moved with voiceless grace and utmost apparent ease, driving the miles of shafting and the thousands of connected machines. The cylinders were forty inches in diameter, the piston-stroke, ten feet. The great walking-beams, nine feet wide in the centre, weighed eleven tons each. The massive fly-wheel, thirty feet in diameter, and weighing fifty-six tons, made thirty-six revolutions a minute. The whole engine, with the strength of fourteen hundred horses, weighed seven hundred tons."

(5.) "I have sought to make more prominent . . . the political evolution of our country . . . and the social culture . . . of the people." How well President Andrews has succeeded is evident from the following quotations: "The political unit of the South [in colonial times] was the parish." "Education was universal [in early Connecticut]." "Legislatures [in the first State Constitutions] were composed of two houses, both elective." This last statement corrects the widespread delusion that Pennsylvania, Georgia, and Vermont had only one house.

(6.) "The volume . . . is believed to utilize, more than any of its predecessors, the many valuable researches of recent years into the rich archives of this and other nations." The result is, of course, the correction of the errors of earlier writers, such as Hildreth, Von Holst, and Rhodes. We have noted some scores of passages which will especially reward the investigator. The singular magnanimity of the Americans in leaving the British flag flying over New York in 1776 had been unnoticed till President Andrews discovered that, in 1783, "the imperial standard of Great Britain fell at the fort over which it had floated for a hundred and thirty years." Singular advantages in the use of French archives not seen by Henry Adams must account for the statements that, "in 1802, . . . had we still been in France's friendship, the two republics might have compelled England's abandonment of that course which evolved the war of 1812"; and that "Napoleon in fact, though not avowedly, more and more receded from his position" on neutral trade. The "twenty-one votes" for Jay in 1800 are not mentioned by any other historian; and Mr. J. F. Merriam's elaborate study into the removals by Jefferson, which he believed to be 99, is superseded by President Andrews's research, which makes the number 39. In correcting the long-standing errors that the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was made on February 2, 1848, and that gold was discovered on January 24, 1848, the author might well have mentioned the "same day and almost at the same hour" when the two events occurred.

Perhaps the most important result of the use of new sources is President Andrews's discovery of a politician named Douglas who was an important figure in 1854. This is evidently not the well-known Stephen A. Douglas who "didn't care whether slavery was voted up or voted down," and whom not even Lincoln could entrap into a point-blank admission that the people of a Territory could prohibit slavery. This man's namesake was of entirely different stripe, inasmuch as "we may believe that Douglas himself cherished the hope and conviction that freedom was its [Kansas-Nebraska's] destiny"; and "according to . . . Douglas . . . a majority of the inhabitants in a Territory could elect to exclude slavery as well as to establish it." We could wish that President Andrews had told us more about this Douglas.

(7.) "No pains has been spared to secure perfect accuracy in all references to dates, persons, and places, so that the volume may be used with confidence as a work of reference." A very few extracts will satisfy the reader on this important point. "Lief Ericson" is the subject of a saga. "Henry VII. [of England] was a Catholic. He therefore submitted to the Pope's bull which gave America to Spain." "A majority of the Virginia shareholders proved Liberals [about 1619]." "The Colonies further south they [the French in 1689] shut in almost as straitly, French bullets whistling about any Englishman's ears the instant he appeared beyond the mountains." [After Pontiac's war,] "At the call of the rich and now free Northwest, caravans of English immigrants thronged thither." "Next came three alien acts [in 1798]." "[Jefferson] overdid simplicity in going to the Capitol on horseback, tying his magnificent horse, Wildair, to a tree with his own hands." "The Russian campaign practically finished Napoleon's career." "The dominant wing of the Democratic party . . . forcing a demand for this [annexation of Texas] into their national platform in 1840." "In 1879 both houses of Congress were Democratic by small majorities, for the first time since 1856." "The negro vote, now that it had become a fixed fact, was little by little courted by the jarring factions, and hence protected." "Previously to 1870 the [negro] race had been constantly decreasing in fecundity." "The most stupendous work yet accomplished by man, the great bridge spanning East River." Such interesting quotations might be multiplied; but they would not add to the reader's conviction as to the unexampled carefulness of the work.

Although the author does not include the charm of his style as one of the seven cardinal virtues, it would be ungracious not to let him speak for himself in a few quotations. "Charles II. was a much meaner man than his father, and James II. was more detestable still." "All prisons were frightful holes which we would as lief die as enter." "A weaker commander would now have given up, but Wolfe had red hair and the grit usually accompanying it." "In 1855 this party assumed national proportions and worried seasoned politicians not a little: but, having crystallized around no living issue, like that which nerved Republicanism, it fell like a rocket-stick, its sparks going over to make redder still Republican fires."

The maps also are briefly mentioned by the author, although they deserve all the commendation that we have given to his book. We can hardly suggest a more fruitful exercise in historical geography than the correction of the previous studies of this kind in the light of President Andrews's maps. We question whether the boundaries of many of the States will not have to be resurveyed to correspond with these new discoveries, which are nowhere else recorded. In short, American history has taken on a new aspect since this novel work has appeared.

GREEK AND LATIN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

The Theory of Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin. For the use of students. By Richard Horton-Smith, M.A., Q.C. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Mr. Horton-Smith's bulky book transports us to the year 1859 and invites a retrospect. It was in 1860 that Prof. Goodwin put forth his memorable treatise on the 'Greek Moods and Tenses,' which, in a comparatively short time, gained an authoritative position in the domain of Greek scholarship. To English classical scholars it was little short of a revelation. Based in large measure on Krüger and Madvig, it brought the best results of the thought and observation of two of the soundest Continental grammarians within the reach of Britons, who have always been slower than Americans to appreciate and apply foreign work. And then, Krüger and Madvig were interpreted by a congenial spirit. Clear, acute, and sensible, free from over-refinement and over-subtilty, Prof. Goodwin's work is calculated to commend itself to the Anglo-Saxon type of mind.

Outside of Krüger and Madvig, Prof. Goodwin owed little to other scholars. Even so important a work as Bäumlein's, published in 1846, was unknown to the author of the 'Moods and Tenses' in 1860, so that Goodwin's own contributions to the subject, especially his well-known analysis of the conditional sentence, may be regarded as his personal achievement, in spite of anticipations, total and partial. In the revised edition of 1890 there is evidence of wider reading in grammatical literature, and a certain concession to the new points of view that have been introduced into syntactical research since 1860. The syntax of to-day demands a finer psychological analysis and a

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more exact observation of historical evolution than the syntax of forty years ago, and Prof. Goodwin's thorough revision of his book, which would have retained much of its value without revision, has made it indispensable to every classical scholar—how much more to every grammatical investigator.

Now Mr. Horton-Smith's attitude towards Goodwin, not the Goodwin of 1890, but the Goodwin of 1860, is one of the most astonishing instances of British insularity and doggedness that can well be imagined. In 1859, it seems, Mr. Horton-Smith, then Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Classical Lecturer of King's College, London, put forth 'An Outline of the Theory of Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin for the Use of Students.' Soon after this publication Mr. Horton-Smith fixed his mind on law's grave study, and what he has done in the last thirty-five years has simply been by way of amusing his leisure hours. "Published," he says, "as the professor's book was, after the present writer's former publication and after the cessation of his official connection with the teaching of classics, an acquaintance with the results of the American scholar's labors was unnecessary." And yet he clings to the old title, "For the use of students." To be sure, there is much that students can use, if sufficiently advanced to profit by the mass of material, but as a manuduction into the theory of the conditional sentence the work is strangely behind the times. The plan, presumably the same as that of the original outline, consists in framing a number of conditional sentences which the author considers theoretically possible, and then finding examples to fit. Of course, the more categories filled the merrier, and a prejudice is established in favor of all manner of "sports" that are due to inferior MSS. and to indulgent grammarians. Out of the ranges of Greek that he has traversed, Mr. Horton-Smith has managed to fish up a number of monsters, especially out of the turbid waters of the Hippocratean *corpus*, and these he has steadily refused to have cleansed, lest perchance the removal of the slime should reveal a commonplace mullet or an every-day flounder.

Each example is accompanied by a translation, and these translations are not the least interesting part of the book, pathologically and otherwise. Happy equivalents of Greek and Latin turns of expression are not lacking; but when we come to the rendering of the Greek and Latin conditions, Mr. Horton-Smith's scheme makes itself felt, and we have to encounter every form of lumbering and unidiomatic periphrasis, and find ourselves in the limbo of those ungrammatical souls who think that translation is an end of controversy. "If haply" and "if truly" for εἰ with subjunctive and ἐάν with subjunctive are not convincing formulæ. The day is past when Gottfried Hermann could make the world believe in his plan of rendering imaginary distinctions in Greek into Latin that was itself imaginary. The syntactician of to-day has his own weaknesses, but they lie in a different direction. To him a translation is an illustration merely, not a proof.

One pleasant and not uninstructive peculiarity of Mr. Horton-Smith's is his loyalty to the great scholars of his youth; and his familiarity with the writings and the personal teachings of such men as Key and Malden and Shilleto, to whose "dear memories" the book is dedicated, has enabled him to emphasize the points in which those independent thinkers have anticipated recent research. And, after all, it is well that the *epigoni* should not be allowed to think too highly of themselves, and that they should have it borne in upon them that the results of painful investigation have been foreseen by scholars of an earlier type, whose vision was keen and whose common sense was strong, however deplorable their methods. But we have got beyond the stage of "guesses at truth" and penetrating divination. Nothing will serve nowadays except exhaustive induction, and each sphere is sharply separated from every other. The modern syntactician has to count with history, has to count with psychology. He has to study dialect and period, has to watch the bounds of conventionality in the orators, and to make allowance for fun and freakishness in the comic poets. There is no one Greek or Latin syntax; there is a syntax for every period, for every province of literature, for every individual in that province. What is perfectly conceivable for Homer is inconceivable for Aristophanes. A solecism that is comprehensible in the New Testament would be incomprehensible in an Attic orator. A hyperepic construction in a tragic poet is one thing; in a normal prose-writer a hyperepic construction would be an impossibility. Of course, Mr. Horton Smith has to admit that some of his theoretical combinations are very rare in standard Greek, and finds himself forced to plead for chance survival. But the survival that he pleads for is often nothing more than the oversight or the blunder of the scribe.

But it will be clear to every one who has any right to a voice in matters grammatical that Mr. Horton-Smith belongs to another syntactical world than ours. In fact, to him the light of modern grammatical study, as it has reached him through notes in the various editions he has read and through such a very dubious medium as the syntactical essays in the *Classical Review*, is simply an impertinence. Delbrück does not seem to be known to him, nor Lange, except by a second-hand quotation. There has been no systematic effort on his part to master the processes of the grammatical thought of the last forty years, and we must be satisfied with what he has chosen to give us out of his fifty years' collections. Much of this will be welcome to the explorer. His copious English, French, and Italian parallels and illustrations show a wide range of reading, and an appreciation of the importance of selecting readable specimens; and he who has leisure to turn over Mr. Horton-Smith's commonplace-book will have glimpses that will make him less forlorn, which is more than can be said of most grammatical treatises. For our veteran is as tangential as that other veteran, J. E. B. Mayor; and when one is in despair about ἄν with the future indicative and the passiveness of the future middle, and ἤν with the present indicative and the untenableness of Dawes's canon, and all the other well-worn themes, one is refreshed by the remark that "lines of three words are common in Dante," is aroused by the query whether a certain passage in Fielding might not have been suggested by the close of Sir Thomas Browne's "Urn-Burial," and is diverted by a collection of passages from various literatures in support of the unquestionable thesis that what has been done cannot be undone. The book, despite what the narrow student of to-day would call its lack of scientific character, is steeped in the charm of studious leisure, and there are many *obiter dicta* of native good sense, to which some rampant theorists might even now give heed; so that, beginning with astonishment, the reviewer ends with a certain pious regard, and would sooner wish his review undone than the book itself. But both, as we have learned from Mr. Horton-Smith, are alike impossibilities.

A Sporting Pilgrimage. By Caspar W. Whitney. Harper & Bros. 1895.

In this handsome and well-illustrated volume Mr. Whitney gives the results of a careful investigation of various forms of sport carried on to-day in England. Either by personal participation or in the capacity of a skilled onlooker, he has acquired an accurate idea of English methods as applied to cross-country riding, rowing, football, track athletics, cycling, cricket, and golf; and while some of his views on these subjects may seem open to question, the picture he draws is, on the whole, a very fair one, and is full of interest to American readers.

Mr. Whitney holds very strongly to the opinion that sport of all kinds deteriorates when the professional element controls, and this result is generally brought about by too much attention to gate-money, and by laxity in the rules which define the amateur's position. Regarded from this point of view, the sports to which Mr. Whitney devoted his time in England fall into two classes. In the first are rowing, cricket, and golf, which are, comparatively speaking, in good odor; and in the second, football, track athletics, and cycling, which are full of scandals. Mr. Whitney goes so far as to say that, outside of the universities and a very few clubs, there is no honesty in track athletics in all England. Football, especially the Association game, is mainly played by professional teams, while bicycle-racing is in as bad repute in England as it is here, and for the same reason, namely, lack of courage on the part of officials in dealing with the amateur question.

It is not, however, in discussing these semi-professional sports that Mr. Whitney's views merit attention so much as in the comparisons he institutes between university sports in England and America. He maintains, with much show of reason, that in these matters we have a good deal to learn from our English cousins. He shows, for instance, that in the English universities there is not the all-absorbing interest in the result of contests that we are accustomed to here. The English undergraduate enjoys the delights of victory, or bears the bitterness of defeat, in a much calmer and more philosophical manner, and with a clearer perception of the relative importance of such events, than the American. Then, again, there is in England an entire absence of the hard commercial atmosphere which envelops our big football games, and which introduces a very undesirable element into undergraduate life. Another obvious difference is in the absurd and childish mystery which surrounds the daily practice of our leading 'varsity crews. We read with a feeling akin to shame of the tricks which are played every year at New London by the rival crews in the endeavor to conceal their own and discover their opponents' doings. How much better is the English method of letting all the world know the time made in practice, and anything else that is of general interest. Again, the English system of training is much more sensible than ours. Our college men devote altogether too much time to training, with the result that our teams and crews are generally overtrained, as was the case with the Yale team that succumbed to Oxford last summer. In some respects, however, Mr. Whitney considers the American collegians superior. He found the Rugby game of foot-

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ball as played in England very inferior in the skill and science displayed to the game played by our leading colleges, and the form of their 'varsity track athletes, except in distance running, does not average as good as ours. Apropos of football, he discovered in an old English history of the game that, among other reasons given for the belief that the world was coming to an end in 1583, was the fact that "football-playing and other devilishe pastimes" were occupying too much of the people's attention. Verily, there is nothing new under the sun.

Mr. Whitney's account of cricket in England is perfunctory and uninteresting. That the game has been free from scandals, although largely played by professionals, he believes to be due to the fact that there has been no sailing under false colors, and that the line of demarcation between the amateur and the professional is clearly marked. We rather incline to the theory that the slow movement of the game—a feature which places it at the end of the sporting scale furthest removed from racing—makes it a poor medium for betting; and where betting enters, scandal is quite sure to follow. That there is something elevating in the nature of the game is an idea that is pleasing to cricketers, but we have known rascals who played good cricket, as we have also known gentlemen who played good football. The truth, of course, is that it is possible to play any game in a sportsmanlike or an unsportsmanlike manner.

Mr. Whitney's language is occasionally careless and obscure. He uses *smithy* for *smith*, and describes an event which happened *somewhere along* 1820, and he rechristens one of the English shires *North Hamptonshire;* but in spite of such blemishes he has produced a pleasant and readable book.

Musicians and Music-Lovers, and Other Essays. By W. F. Apthorp. Scribners.

THE number of books on musical topics annually issued by American publishers is becoming almost as great as the number issued in Germany, and if their average of scholarship is perhaps less high, the American books are as a rule better written and more entertaining. The question has recently been much discussed whether the ideal musical critic should be a musician who can write, or a writer who understands music. It cannot be denied that the most valuable criticisms on music were written by composers—Berlioz, Schumann, Wagner, Liszt; nor, on the other hand, can it be denied that, as a rule, professional musicians are too prejudiced and too deficient in general culture to make good writers on their art, except on technical points. After all, it seems sensible to assume that a critic whose duty it is not to compose but to write for newspapers and book-readers, should be first of all a journalist and author. He need not be able to compose a symphony or even a waltz, but he should know everything about the anatomy of compositions and—keep that knowledge carefully to himself; for nothing is more futile, useless, and tiresome to a general reader of musical notices and books than the habitual elaborate analyses, with examples in musical type, which are to musical criticism what parsing is to literary criticism. The greatest musical critics are not addicted to the habit of parsing, unless they have a private class-room, where it is quite in place.

It is gratifying to find that Mr. Apthorp does not indulge in any parsing in this volume of musical essays, though he might easily have done so, as he has a thorough knowledge of musical technique; gratifying, also, to find that he does not resort to the hair-splitting which is the one conspicuous fault of his newspaper criticisms. He has collected here nine essays which form a real addition to our musical literature. They cover a wide range of topics, as is shown by the titles—"Musicians and Music-Lovers," "J. S. Bach," "Additional Accompaniments to Bach's and Handel's Scores," "Meyerbeer," "Offenbach," "Two Modern Classicists," "J. S. Dwight," "Some Thoughts on Musical Criticism," "Music and Science."

Perhaps nowhere else, certainly not in the English language, could there be found such a clear and cogent exposition of the question of additional accompaniments as Mr. Apthorp has made. The question is really one of genius versus pedantry, of artistic taste versus dry archæologism. A mere enumeration of the names would prove this—Mozart, Rheinberger, Liszt, Franz, on one side, Spitta, Chrysander, Joachim, and Brahms on the other. All admit that there are works of Bach and Handel which require additional accompaniments, such as those masters themselves used to supply at the organ or harpsichord; the question is what those accompaniments should be—Franz and his party claiming that they should be polyphonic, like the works which those masters completely wrote out, while the pedantic group insist on the use of mere plain harmony, which is entirely foreign to the mode of composition in that day. On this point Mr. Apthorp's argumentation is absolutely incontrovertible, and he still further drives in the nail by mentioning the significant fact that the archæologico-historical party carefully omitted from their discussions the attitude assumed by Mozart. They could resort to the tactics of denying that Liszt and Franz were men of genius, since they were still living and therefore (*more Germanico*) underrated; but they could not pursue those tactics toward Mozart, knowing as well as Otto Dresel that "Mozart's opinion of what is right to do for Handel is worth that of a hundred thousand professors of musical history." Admirers of Brahms, Joachim & Co. may profitably study page 127 of Mr. Apthorp's book, and peruse, on page 234, the letter to him by Franz, in which the historic party's bad musical grammar is mercilessly exposed.

Several private letters from Franz to Mr. Apthorp are published in the article on "Two Modern Classicists," and are welcome contributions to the scant biographic material relating to that great song writer, whose wonderful genius was so little understood by the Germans, even at his death, that only a few papers published adequate obituary notices of him. The first Franz apostle in America was Otto Dresel, who also wrote a small volume of good songs, entirely in the Franz vein. Mr. Apthorp gives an entertaining character-sketch of this unique Boston musician, regarding whose relations to Franz he says:

"They were stanch and life-long friends; their agreement on musical subjects was as complete as their friendship; they both worked together towards the same end, though they lived long apart; neither of the two gave anything to the world without its passing through the ordeal of the other's criticism; they died within two years of each other."

Throughout these papers Mr. Apthorp speaks of Bach and Handel as if they were composers of equal worth and rank; but in the special paper on Bach he shows that therein he merely follows the force of habit, and that in his heart he knows how much the greater genius Bach is. He compares him to Dante, and applies to him Lowell's dictum that "his readers turn students, his students zealots; and what was a taste becomes a religion." Mr. Apthorp's own confession of faith is that of many music-lovers:

"The love of Bach is the most enduring of musical passions; I know that I can hardly open a volume of Bach without a certain feeling of superstitious terror; I feel as if the perusal of each page would be but a nail in the coffin of all my other loves. No matter what your enthusiasm for other composers may be, there comes a time when long communion with any one of them breeds satiety, and you cry for change; but you can return to Bach every day, and each time you find him greater, more wonderful, more all-powerful than before."

A passage like this shows that Mr. Apthorp understands the highest function of criticism, which is to arouse enthusiasm for what is best in art. He himself says: "What the critic *knows* is valuable to himself mainly; it is what he *thinks* and *feels* that is valuable to others." He might have added that while a critic may not be able to arouse the same emotion in the reader's mind as the work discussed, he can, if he is a good writer, arouse such enthusiasm that the reader will feel eager at once to hear and study the work praised. If music were really a popular art, the highest function of criticism would be to establish cool and impartial judgments; but since the best in art is usually born to blush unseen for a long time, the best thing by far that the critic can do is to discover this best and arouse enthusiasm for it. This Mr. Apthorp does in his admirably written volume, and that constitutes its chief value. It will incline its readers to study and love Bach and Franz, and to despise Meyerbeer and Offenbach, who, by a strange freak of fate, were destined to set the fashion in opera and operetta for France during a whole generation. They were mere froth on the ocean of which Bach and Franz are the permanent waters, whose treasures only deep-sea dredging can reveal.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annesley, Charles. The Standard-Operaglass: Detailed Plots of One Hundred and Fifteen Operas. 9th ed., revised. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Westermann.

Bradley, Prof. C. B. Orations and Arguments by English and American Statesmen. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Cotes, Mrs. Everard. Vernon's Aunt. Being the Original Experiences of Miss Lavinia Moffat. Appletons.

Dippold, Prof. G. T. A Scientific German Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Ellis, E. S. Among the Esquimaux. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.

Fontaine, C. Les Historiens Français du XIXe Siècle. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.

Goldsmith, Oliver. The Deserted Village, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.

Half-Hours with an Old Golfer. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.

In the Heart of the Bitter-Root Mountains. The Story of "The Carlin Hunting Party." Putnams. $1.50.

Jackson, Rev. S. M. The Book of Job. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.

Ladd, Prof. G. T. Philosophy of Mind: An Essay in the Metaphysics of Psychology. Scribners. $3.

Moore, Dr. E. Tutte le Opere di Dante Alighieri. Nuovamente rivedute nel testo. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.

Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Deceit—Deject. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.

Nevinson, H. W. Slum Stories of London. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.

Otis, James. Chasing a Yacht. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.

Palmer, F. L. The Wealth of Labor. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.

Pinero, A. W. The Second Mrs. Tanqueray. Boston: W. H. Baker & Co. 50 cents.

Raymond, Prof. G. L. Rhythm and Harmony in Poetry and Music. Putnams. $1.75.

Strachey, Mrs. Richard. Poets on Poets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.

Swan, Annie S. Airlie's Mission. Hunt & Eaton. 50 cents.

Tirebuck, William. Sweetheart Gwen. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.

Trask, Katrina. Sonnets and Lyrics. Randolph.

Tyler, Prof. W. S. A History of Amherst College from 1821 to 1891. Frederick H. Hitchcock. $1.50.

Wagner, Capt. A. L. Organization and Tactics. B. Westermann & Co.

Warner, Prof. A. G. American Charities: A Study in Philanthropy and Economics. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.

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